

**STUDENT PERFORMANCE AND LEADERSHIP PRACTICES OF
SELECTED ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS: A COHORT STUDY**

A Record of Study

by

STACEY RAE ARNOLD

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

May 2007

Major Subject: Educational Administration

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Approved by:

Chair of Committee,	John R. Hoyle
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ABSTRACT

Student Performance and Leadership Practices of
Selected Elementary School Principals: A Cohort Study. (May 2007)

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School leadership provides a critical bridge between student success initiatives and their impact on students in Texas schools. This study, which was one of four cohort studies conducted concurrently in Region V Education Service Center (ESC), Texas, examined the relationship between student performance, as measured by the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS), and leadership practices of elementary school principals in Region V ESC schools.

The investigation procedures for this study involved an analysis of the responses from principals and site-based decision making (SBDM) committee members from their respective campuses to the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003) which evaluates the use of five identified leadership practices: *Model the Way*, *Inspire a Shared Vision*, *Challenge the Process*, *Enable Others to Act*, and *Encourage the Heart*. Student performance information for the participating elementary campuses was obtained from the Texas Education Agency Academic Excellence Indicator System database.

This study found no linear relationship between perceived leadership practices of elementary principals and the academic success of students as measured by the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS). However, a relationship between these variables is strongly supported by the literature. The data were an indication that Region V elementary principals embrace the leadership practices identified by Kouzes and Posner at least moderately (between the 30th and 69th percentile) or at a higher level (70th percentile or above).

As a group, the principals in this study rated themselves higher overall in regard to perceived leadership practices than did their observers, but only significantly higher on three of the five individual practices. Principals and their observers agreed that the practice *Enable Others to Act* was the most frequently noted followed by the practices *Model the Way* and *Encourage the Heart*. The practices with the least reported frequency were *Challenge the Process* and *Inspire a Shared Vision*. Further analysis of the data showed that the demographic variables of gender, ethnicity, age, and years of experience in the field of education did not have an effect on survey responses of the study participants.

DEDICATION

This record of study is dedicated to my family and friends who have been my support system in all of my endeavors. To my husband, Joe, thank you for all of the encouragement, patience, and understanding you have shown over the last 16 years. You have helped to instill a confidence in me that has helped me realize success in many aspects of my life.

To my sons, Jared and Kellen, you are my inspiration. I have watched you grow in so many ways during the past four years and I am so proud both of you. I hope that I have been able to show you what can be accomplished with work and perseverance.

To my parents, Larry and Pat Sheppard, thank you for being there and offering encouragement in whatever I set out to accomplish. You instilled in me the importance of education which led to my love of learning and ultimately, my career choice. Your love and support has helped shape me into the person I am today.

To my brother, Scott Sheppard, thank you for going through this program with me. It has been quite a ride and you have been an encourager and a friend. I am excited that we will share the experience of walking across that stage in May.

To Michael, thank you for teaching me to be an Aggie. I have felt your presence when I've walked across campus and I know you will be with me when I walk across the stage in Reed Arena. Fightin' Texas Aggie Class of '07, Whoop!

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lifelong learners who so willingly share their expertise and encourage others to continue learning.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behaviors, interactions, and position with most definitions reflecting the assumption that leadership involves the process of one person exerting influence over others within an organization (Yukl, 2002). Green (2001) agrees that a leader as one who has the capacity to influence others to use their expertise and skills to move an organization toward established goals as well as assist individuals in adjusting to an organization's environment. Great leaders possess an ability to engage others in a shared meaning, a distinctive and compelling voice, a sense of integrity, and an adaptive capacity (Bennis & Thomas, 2002). The art of leadership involves the practice of human relation and interpersonal communication skills while leadership as a science is grounded in research and professional development. Successful leaders practice both the art and science of leadership (Weller, 2004). Sergiovanni (1996) posits that all leadership theories place emphasis on connecting people to each other as well as connecting people to their work. The heart of leadership is relationships. Leadership is a relationship between those who seek to lead and those who choose to follow (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). The essence of leadership is the ability to take followers to "a place they have never been and are not sure they want to go" (Lezotte & McKee, 2006, p.16).

The style and format for this record of study follow that of the *Journal of Educational Research*.

Through the course of time, the role of the school principal has evolved from master teacher whose duties included keeping the school organized and operating efficiently to the role of chief executive officer of the school, or manager of the school facility (Wilmore, 2004). Sergiovanni (1990) writes that though management is necessary in schools, school administrators often provide little beyond basic management which leads to a lack of true leadership. Effective school leaders must recognize the importance of teaching and learning, clearly communicate the vision and mission of the school to all stakeholders, promote an atmosphere of trust and collaboration, and emphasize professional development (Anfara, 2001). In order to effectively lead their schools, educational leaders must also have the capacity to assess their own strengths and weaknesses (Lewis, 1993).

From research on effective schools, Carter and Klotz (1990) point out that when school leaders have high expectations for student learning and hold teachers accountable, student achievement is high. Effective schools have certain research-based core characteristics and a governance structure initiated and sustained by leaders who possess certain skills and competencies that allow them to forge together the characteristics of effective schooling into a structured, systematic delivery process that makes them quality-producing schools of excellence (Weller, 2004).

The position of elementary principal has to be one of the most challenging and important jobs in today's society. Challenges facing 21st century principals include: providing a positive learning environment for a highly diverse student population, understanding the implications of brain research and how children develop and learn, understanding and integrating technology into schools, and finding innovative ways

to promote and market schools and get involved with the community (Ferrandino, 2001). Today's principal is faced with an academic mission and studies show principals in high achieving schools lead the academic program, set goals, examine curriculum, evaluate teachers and assess results (Mendel, Watson, & MacGregor, 2002).

Statement of the Problem

The accountability and standards movement that began in the 1990's has redefined the context for educational leadership today. The emphasis on high-stakes testing and increased focus on accountability and student success through the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 and the Texas state accountability system requires the principal to become the main educational facilitator and instructional leader of the learning community (Wilmore, 2002). Relationships are at the heart of leadership. Hoyle (2002) posits that school leaders and teachers know the importance of a loving and caring school climate in establishing relationships necessary for students to succeed, but the pressure to produce increasingly higher test scores can cause love and caring to disappear from schools. "Caring for others is paramount for organizations to reach their potential" (p. 5).

In 2004, fewer than 70% of students in one or more student groups met standards on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) in 34 of 73 elementary schools in Region V Education Service Center (ESC), Texas, according to the Texas Education Agency accountability database. Though these schools met the 2004 Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) performance standards established as a requirement of

NCLB, they will not continue to meet the annually increasing AYP standards unless the percentage of students meeting the standards on the TAKS test also increases annually.

Through two decades of study, Kouzes and Posner have identified five leadership practices exemplified by effective leaders. These five leadership practices are: (1) *Model the Way*; (2) *Inspire a Shared Vision*; (3) *Challenge the Process*; (4) *Enable Others to Act*; and (5) *Encourage the Heart*. More specifically, Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) examined the effects of leadership on student achievement through a meta-analysis of 30 years of research. Their findings indicate that a relationship exists between leadership practices and student performance, noting 21 specific leadership responsibilities significantly correlated with student achievement.

Effective leaders have the capacity to cultivate relationships that empower the members of an organization to accomplish extraordinary things on a regular basis (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Empowering others requires school leaders to make a commitment to teachers, staff, students, and parents and to trust that teachers and staff will act with integrity and in the best interest of students and the school (Hoyle, 2002). The challenge for instructional leaders in Texas elementary schools is to empower all stakeholders to accomplish the extraordinary task of ensuring increased student performance of all student groups. Ongoing work by Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2004) and other scholars is adding to knowledge about the links between school leadership by the principal and student performance, but more research is needed to find these relationships.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between student performance and leadership practices of elementary principals from schools in Region V Education Service Center (ESC), Texas. The study compared the perceptions of elementary principals and selected SBDM committee members from their respective campuses regarding leadership practices based on responses to the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003) and determined if selected demographic variables had an impact the LPI responses of the two identified groups.

This study is one of four cohort studies that were conducted concurrently in Region V ESC, Texas. The other studies examined the relationship between student performance and leadership practices of middle/junior high school principals, high school principals, and district superintendents.

Research Questions

This study was guided by the following research questions.

1. Is there a relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by principals and selected SBDM committee members in elementary schools in Region V ESC, Texas, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003)?
2. Are there differences in the responses of principals and selected SBDM committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in elementary schools in Region V ESC, Texas?

3. Do selected demographic variables impact responses of principals and selected SBDM committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in elementary schools in Region V ESC, Texas?

Operational Definitions

For the purpose of this study, the following terms and definitions were utilized:

Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS): A statewide system that reports student performance data on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) and State Developed Alternative Assessment (SDAA), testing participation rates, student attendance, program participation, student and staff demographic information, staffing ratios, and financial information for every campus and district in the state of Texas. Indicators in this report are used to determine campus and district accountability ratings (TEA, n.d.).

Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP): The accountability component of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) that requires campuses and districts to meet performance standards or improvements and participation criteria on reading/language arts and math assessments. Elementary campuses must also meet attendance rate standards (TEA, 2005).

Campus Rating System: A component of the Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) through which campuses receive an Exemplary, Recognized, Academically Acceptable, or Academically Unacceptable rating based on the percentage of students meeting the standard on the TAKS or SDAA II reading and math tests (TEA, n.d.).

Elementary Campus: Schools with grade configurations inclusive of grades kindergarten through five and/or six where grade five or six is the highest grade level on the campus.

Leadership Practices: The five practices identified by Kouzes & Posner (2002) that describe the pattern of leadership behaviors that emerge when people are accomplishing extraordinary things in organizations: (1) model the way by setting the example, (2) inspire a shared vision by envisioning the future and enlisting others in that vision, (3) challenge the process by searching for new opportunities or taking risks, (4) enable others to act by fostering collaboration and building on the strengths of others, and (5) encourage the heart by recognizing individual contributions and by celebrating accomplishments.

Perceived: To regard as being a particular way.

Principal: The administrator in charge of an elementary school campus.

Region V Education Service Center (ESC): Serving the school districts of Hardin, Jasper, Jefferson, Orange, Newton, and Tyler counties plus High Island ISD, this is one of twenty regional education service centers created by the state legislature in 1967 to combine certain tasks common to each school district in order to promote operational efficiency and effectiveness.

Relationship: The relatedness or interrelatedness of two or more concepts, persons, or objects.

Selected Site-Based Decision Making Committee (SBDM) Members: The chairman, or designee, and at least one additional member of the campus SBDM committee.

Student Performance: The percentage of students meeting the standard on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS).

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made in conducting the research for this study.

1. The respondents surveyed will understand the scope of the study and the language of the instrument, will be competent in self-reporting, and will respond honestly and objectively.
2. The researcher will be impartial and objective in the collection and analysis of data and the interpretation of the collected data will accurately reflect the intent of the respondents.
3. The methodology described offers the most logical and appropriate design for this particular study.

Limitations

1. The scope of this study is limited to the information and data acquired from literature review, survey instruments and student performance data.
2. The scope of this study is limited to the elementary schools in Region V Education Service Center, Texas and findings of this study may not be generalized to any other group.
3. Correlations do not represent a causal relationship.

Significance of the Study

Today's elementary principal is concerned about student assessment and performance, staff development, time management, and resource availability (Ferrandino, 2001). It is imperative that principals share the responsibility of developing, evaluating, and improving the instructional process, or the responsibilities of the position would be daunting. This requires principals to be instrumental in the long-term development of people so they can adapt, change, prosper, and grow which, according to Kouzes and Posner (2002), is the most significant contribution leaders make to an organization. The adapting school climate of Texas public schools brought about by high-stakes accountability measures, unfunded legislative mandates, and increasing student diversity affords educational leaders many opportunities to initiate change and empower all stakeholders so they may grow and prosper.

Effective school outcomes are initiated, promoted and sustained by leaders who possess common essential leadership skills and competencies that allow them to forge the independent, research-based characteristics of effective schools into a structured delivery process (Weller, 2004). Many studies have sought to determine the characteristics of effective leaders, but few studies have been conducted regarding self-perceived practices of elementary principals and the relationship of these practices to student achievement. This research examines the correlation between perceived leadership practices and student performance as measured by the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) in selected Region V ESC elementary

schools. This study offers recommendations for strengthening the leadership practices of elementary principals as well as suggestions for further study.

Contents of the Study

This study is divided into five major chapters. An introduction, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, operational definitions, assumptions and limitations, and significance of the study are outlined in Chapter I. A comprehensive review of the literature is provided in Chapter II. Chapter III describes the methodology of the research, while Chapter IV contains the analysis of the data collected in the study. The researcher's conclusions and recommendations for further study are found in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The review of the literature presented in this chapter provides a comprehensive look at leadership as defined by various authors and researchers, as it applies to school leadership, and more specifically, implications for the elementary school principalship. The traits associated with effective leadership, as well as instruments and models that examine leader behaviors, such as the Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Model, the Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ), and Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory are reviewed. Finally, the Texas accountability system for schools, the national accountability system for schools as prescribed by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, and the implications for school leaders in meeting the standards set by the two accountability systems are examined.

Leadership Defined

According to Bennis and Nanus (1985), more than 350 definitions of leadership can be found in decades of academic analysis. Meyer and Slechta (2002) note that defining leadership in a manner that applies to virtually everyone is "part of the universal challenge of leadership" (p. 19). Leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behaviors, interaction and relationships, as well as the occupation of an administrative position. Most definitions reflect the assumption that leadership involves a process in which one person intentionally exerts influence over other

people to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships in an organization (Yukl, 2002). Drucker (2001) believes the requirements for leadership include:

1. Setting and having goals, a vision, and a mission.
2. The realization that leadership is a responsibility, not a rank or privilege.
3. The leader sees others' successes for what they are and works to develop strong associations.
4. Earns the trust of others.
5. Understands that the ultimate task of leadership is to create human energies and human vision. (p. 271)

Meyer and Slechta (2002) define three elements that are foundational to leadership: leaders have integrity, leaders possess a servant's heart, and leaders are cognizant of the concept of stewardship. Leadership, defined broadly, is a social process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done, how it can be done effectively, and facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared purposes and goals (Hoy & Miskel, 2001; Sergiovanni, 1996; Yukl, 2002).

By definition, leadership requires a followership, a followership that delegates leadership (Drucker, 2001; Lezotte & McKee, 2006). "The essence of the leader-follower relation is the interaction of persons with different levels of motivation and of power potential, including skill in pursuit of a common or at least joint purpose" (Burns, 1978, p. 19). Lezotte and McKee (2006) define the essence of leadership as "the ability to take a "followership" to a place they have never been, and are not sure they want to go." Theodore Friend III, past president of Swarthmore College, is quoted by Bennis and Nanus (1985) as defining leadership as:

Heading into the wind with such knowledge of oneself and such collaborative energy as to move others to wish to follow. The angle into the wind is less important than choosing one and sticking reasonably to it, which reasonability includes willingness to be borne by friendly currents. Followers do not collect to exhortation, but adhere from example. In action and in articulation, leading

requires that one know where one is taking oneself: from the being that has been to the one that wishes to be, despite ambiguities, and against the odds that inhere in ideals. (p. 44)

Leadership is a transaction, or relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 2002). It involves influencing others by persuasion or example, or by tapping their inner moral forces and unless followers are willing to be led, leaders cannot lead (Durbin, 1997; Sergiovanni, 1996).

Durbin (1997) defines leadership as the “key dynamic force that motivates and coordinates the organization in the accomplishment of its objectives” (p. 2). Effective leadership is the pivotal force behind successful, effective organizations and is necessary to help organizations develop a vision of what they can be, instill within employees a commitment to change and instill new cultures and strategies that mobilize and focus the energy and resources necessary for the organization to realize the vision (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). According to Lezotte and McKee (2006), effective leaders see to it that the organization as a whole internalizes the vision and the means used to achieve that vision, making apparent the critical difference between being an effective manager and an effective leader. Lezotte and McKee go on to say, “the difference between managers and leaders is reflected in their actions and behaviors, and directly relates to how individuals in leadership positions construe their roles” (2006, p. 33). Hersey (1992) states, “Leadership is an attempt to influence the behavior of another individual or group” while “management is working with and through others to accomplish organizational goals” (p. 16). Bennis and Nanus (1985) distinguish the difference between managers and leaders in that managers “do things

right” while leaders “do the right thing” (p. 21). Hoerr (2005) believes that strong leaders are strong because they can lead and manage. He states, “Leaders do create the vision, deal with external parties, and inspire,” (p. 8) all of which are tasks academicians associate with leadership. He argues that leaders also take on the management tasks of “executing the strategies that make the vision a reality, deal with employees, and follow through to ensure that the right things are done in the right way” (p. 8). Hersey (1992) believes leadership is key if one is going to be an effective manager. Senge (1990) states, “Leaders are designers, stewards, and teachers. They are responsible for building organizations where people continually expand their capacities to understand complexity, clarify vision and improve shared mental modes—that is, they are responsible for learning” (p. 340). Effective organizations are in effect a commonwealth of learning, created by effective leadership. “Present problems will not be solved without successful organizations, and organizations cannot be successful without effective leadership” (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 21).

School Leadership

“Leadership arises from the effective use of a specific set of skills and behaviors that can be learned, practiced, and refined, [but] must be adapted to the organization context within which the leader must operate” (Lezotte & McKee, 2006, p. xii). School leadership is defined by Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2004) as “the identification, acquisition, allocation, co-ordination, and use of the social, material, and cultural resources necessary to establish the conditions for the possibility of

teaching and learning” (p. 11). The job description and expectations of the school principalship has expanded since the reforms of the early 1980s and as expectations have increased, the principal’s role has come under more and more scrutiny (Copland, 2001). “Compared to middle-management jobs in the private sector, or even in government agencies, the principal’s job is far more demanding than most” (Lezotte & McKee, 2006, p. 25). Principals are charged with “big picture” responsibilities of visionary leadership, management, and supervision. They must create a community of learners, inclusive of students and faculty members, as well as serve as counselor and action researcher (Copland, 2001). Other terms used in past studies to describe the role of the principal include manager, administrator, politician, change agent, boundary spanner, and instructional leader (Smith & Andrews, 1989). Leithwood, Begley, and Cousins (1992) state that formal school leadership is a “socially constructed role” for which expectations have recently changed at such a rapid pace that incompetence has been created for some with a long tenure in the position because they have not changed their performance to “match the socially determined expectations for exemplary school leadership” (p. 11). Principals are held accountable for their responsibilities by superintendents, school boards, staff members, parents, the media, and community members (Copland, 2001). According to Sergiovanni (1996), the root of school leadership can be found at the root of the principal’s role responsibilities—“a commitment to administer to the needs of the school as an institution by serving its purposes, by serving those who struggle to embody these purposes, and by acting as a guardian to protect the institutional integrity of the school” (p. 88). In 2002, the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC)

published standards for preparation programs and professional development of school administrators as follows:

A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by...

1. Facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a school or district vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.
2. Advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.
3. Ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.
4. Collaborating with families and community members responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.
5. Acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.
6. Understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.
7. Substantial, sustained, standards-based experiences in real settings that are planned and guided cooperatively by university and school district personnel for graduate credit. (Wilmore, 2002, pp.13-14)

Similarly, Sergiovanni (1996) believes there are certain tasks principals should perform as leaders, which include: Purposing, maintaining harmony, institutionalizing values, motivating, managing, explaining, enabling, modeling, and supervising.

Vision

According to Lezotte and McKee (2006), the most effective educational leaders have excelled at getting “a critical mass of the followership to share and commit to a common vision and a set of values and beliefs” (p. 51). The principalship of the 21st century requires the ability to lead others and to stand for important ideas and values that make life meaningful for others, never losing sight of a vision, even while making the difficult day-to-day decisions (Ferrandino, 2001). Sergiovanni (1996)

states, “Principals have a special responsibility to share their visions of what schools can become” (p. 83). He also states, “Principals should be concerned with the visions of parents, teachers, and students; with the visions implicit in our democratic traditions; and indeed with the visions embodied in Judeo-Christian values as they are with their own visions” (p. 84). The principal serves as facilitator in giving a voice to all stakeholders by identifying common values and resolving conflict while building a unified team with a common vision (Wilmore, 2002). As a leader, the principal must bring the visions shared by teachers, parents, students, and themselves into a covenant that speaks to all stakeholders, build a consensual understanding of the school’s goals, and translate the covenant into a workable set of procedures that facilitate the accomplishment of the goals (Sergiovanni, 1996).

Principal as Manager

Wilmore (2002) argues the primary emphasis of the role of the principal has shifted from “master teacher,” where the principal is a recognized instructional leader, to one in which the principal manages the school facility. Managing the school facility requires ensuring the day-to-day support necessary to keep the school running effectively and efficiently. Responsibilities include planning, organizing, setting agendas, mobilizing resources, providing procedures, and record keeping (Sergiovanni, 1996). Consequently, the principal’s job is characterized by long hours at a hectic, unrelenting pace that requires a constant change in tasks and a significant amount of interpersonal contact, more unplanned than planned, with a diverse group of people within the school building (Hoy & Miskel, 2001; Leithwood et al., 1992).

Leithwood et al. (1992) believe schools are in need of competent management; people who can establish and maintain daily routines that allow the basic purposes of the school to be achieved, even though school members do not remain the same. Sergiovanni (1990) argues that school officials at the state and local level provide little else than competent management and consequently, schools are “overmanaged and underled” (p. 17).

Principal as Supervisor

Sergiovanni (1996) defines supervision as, “providing the necessary oversight to ensure the school is meeting its commitments, and when it is not, to find out why, and to help everyone do something about it” (p. 89). He goes on to say that as a supervisor, the principal acts *in loco parentis* with regard to students, as a trustee with regard to parents, and as a steward with regard to the school’s purposes and structures. Principals become more like administrators, rather than managers, when they function as stewards by providing for the oversight and care of the school (Sergiovanni, 1996).

Principal as Instructional Leader

The recent dramatic change in the business of schools no longer allows principals to simply be administrators and managers. “They must be leaders in improving instruction and student achievement. They must be the force that creates collaboration and cohesion around school learning goals and the commitment to achieve those goals” (National Association of Elementary School Principals [NAESP], 2001, p. 11).

The school reform movement of the 1980s created pressure on school leaders to make student learning their central job focus. If a principal paid attention to instruction, set curricular goals, monitored lesson plans, and evaluated teachers, they were considered an “instructional leader.” Today, instructional leaders must “immerse themselves in the “core technology” of teaching and learning, use data to make decisions, and align staff development with student learning needs” (Lashway, 2002). Instructional leadership involves “the active collaboration of principal and teachers on curriculum, instruction, and assessment” (Marks & Printy, 2003). Smith and Andrews (1989) state:

Principal as instructional leader means the principal is perceived by close associates as (1) providing the necessary resources so that the school’s academic goals can be achieved; (2) possessing knowledge and skill in curriculum and instruction matters so that teachers perceive that their interaction with the principal leads to improved instructional practice; (3) being a skilled communicator in one-on-one, small-group, and large-group settings; and (4) being a visionary who is out and around creating a visible presence for the staff, students, and parents at both physical and philosophical levels concerning what the school is all about. (p. 23)

Strong instructional leaders have the capacity to mobilize personal, building, district, and community resources to implement policies that lead to desired outcomes and the ability to analyze and manage resources in a way that allows the entire school community to realize its potential. Included in mobilizing resources are the administrative tasks of personnel and facilities management, budget, and providing an orderly school climate (Smith & Andrews, 1989). According to Smith and Andrews (1989), “Effective principals have the capacity and energy to closely monitor all aspects of the school program-teaching, learning, and the environment.” (p. 11). They view resource provision as not only providing funds for supplies, but also as

“encouragement of human resources” (p. 11) as a means of maximizing instructional effectiveness that helps faculty and students achieve success. Teachers perceive effective principals as “assuming responsibility for the initiation of programs and the continued supervision and material resources essential to maintain and enhance teacher work efforts” (Blase, 1987).

Wilmore (2002) states “Curriculum and instruction are the fundamental purpose—the “meat and potatoes”—of what makes schools unique” (p. 35). She goes on to say that the instructional program is the primary focus of the energy, compassion, and commitment of the school principal and the distinction between school leadership and any other type of organizational leadership. “The effective principal is actively involved in all aspects of the instructional program, sets expectations for continuous improvement and collegiality, models the kinds of behaviors desired, participates in inservice training with teachers, and consistently gives priority to instructional concerns” (Smith & Andrews, 1989, p. 13). The principal who is actively engaged in improving classroom circumstances that enhance learning serves as an instructional resource by facilitating good teaching through ongoing dialogue with staff members that encourages the use of a variety teaching strategies and instructional materials (Smith & Andrews, 1989). Principals influence instruction through direct interaction with teachers concerning teaching strategies that, in turn, establishes the conditions within which such instruction occurs (Leithwood & Steinbach, 1995). Blase (1987) found that principals’ knowledge and expertise were linked to levels of commitment, communication, and cohesiveness among teachers.

As a communicator, the principal articulates a shared vision for the school. Leaders communicate well and often. They listen and incorporate others' ideas, talents, and energies into forging that vision (Hoerr, 2005). In Blase's (1987) study, data indicate that teachers link principals' communication skills to clear expectations, which also relate to teachers' perceptions of the principals' ability to make judgments concerning goal achievement. According to Smith and Andrews (1989), day-to-day behavior communicates that the principal has a firm understanding of the purpose of schooling and can translate that meaning into programs and activities within the school. Communication is also used as the basis for developing sound relationships with staff through behavior that is consistent, objective, and fair. For sound relationships to develop, however, it is imperative that the principal explicitly communicate both the content and processes for communication with staff members (Smith & Andrews, 1989).

“As a visible presence, the principal interacts with staff and students in classrooms and hallways, attends grade-level and departmental meetings, and strikes up spontaneous conversations with teachers. The principal's presence is felt throughout the school as the keeper of the vision” (Smith & Andrews, 1989, pp. 18-19). When a principal is visible, he or she is also accessible. “The accessibility of principals and the positive interplay related to it seemed to enhance organizational cohesiveness by reducing the social and psychological distance commonly present in superordinate-subordinate relations” (Blase, 1987). Eisner (2002) believes that schools we need would have principals spend one third of their time in classrooms to ensure that they know firsthand what is going on instructionally. To the contrary,

Leithwood and Steinbach (1995) state that it is not necessary to “assume that unless principals are constantly in classrooms observing instruction they have little effect on the quality of education in their schools” (p. 33). They believe that the trick to curriculum and instruction leadership is to have spontaneously occurring leadership opportunities “accumulate in a consistent and desired direction” (p. 34).

According to Smith and Andrews (1989), “Schools operated by principals who were perceived by their teachers to be strong instructional leaders exhibited significantly greater gain scores in achievement in reading and mathematics than did schools operated by average and weak instructional leaders” (p. 9). Leithwood et al. (1992) point out that to school leadership, the term ‘instructional leadership’ symbolizes the importance of an emphasis on student growth and on the direct services provided to foster that growth. They argue that the term conveys a meaning that “encompasses only a portion of those activities now associated with effective school leadership” (p. 9). “In the absence of developing a mission-centered, performance-centered, and culture-centered community by the principal, instructional leadership is rendered aimless or without purpose” (Lezotte & McKee, 2006, p. 110).

The Elementary Principal

Ferrandino (2001) states, “The job of the elementary principal has to be one of the most challenging in today’s society—as well as one of the most important” (p. 441). He further relates that in a 1998 study commissioned by the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP), responses from 1,323 randomly selected K-8 principals indicated that elementary and middle school principals spend an average of

nine hours per day and 54 hours per week in work-related activities. More specifically, he notes, most of the time is spent in three areas: contacting and supervising staff, interaction with students, and managing student discipline. He continues that the typical principal selects and has the responsibility of supervising teachers, involves teachers in developing and evaluating the instructional process, and is likely to share the responsibility for instructional improvement with teachers. Principals are “concerned about fragmentation of [their] time, student assessment, students not performing to potential, staff development and retraining, and financial resources” (Ferrandino, 2001, p. 8).

Instructional leadership emerged as the major role of the K-8 principal in the NAESP study (Doud & Keller, 1998).

The National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) gives the following definition of what constitutes instructional leadership:

Effective leaders:

- Lead schools in a way that places student and adult learning at the center
- Set high expectations and standards for the academic and social development of all students and the performance of adults
- Demand content and instruction that ensure student achievement of agreed-upon academic standards
- Create a culture of continuous learning for adults tied to student learning and other school goals
- Use multiple sources of data as diagnostic tools to assess, identify and apply instructional improvement
- Actively engage the community to create shared responsibility for student and school success. (NAESP, 2001, p. 2)

These six actions comprise the standards developed by the NAESP for what principals should know and be able to do if they are to promote quality in schools and improve student achievement (NAESP, 2001).

A 1985 study of principals conducted by the Far West Laboratories for Educational Research and Development utilized student interviews to describe principal effectiveness (Kojimoto, 1987). The findings of the study indicated, “children praised principals who kept their schools safe, demonstrated concern for them personally, and were firm but fair in disciplinary matters” (Kojimoto, 1987, p. 74). Principals who maintained visibility by walking in the halls, on the playground, in the lunchroom, and visiting classrooms received high marks from students and most students were reassured by the principal’s constant presence. Students indicated that they preferred a principal who developed a positive relationship with them and who tried to learn about and meet their needs. They also spoke highly of principals who helped them grow academically (Kojimoto, 1987).

According to Mortimore and Sammons (1987), a four-year study of the effectiveness of elementary education conducted by the Inner London Education Authority from 1980-1984 in 50 elementary schools identified 12 key factors of effectiveness. One of the key factors identified was “purposeful leadership of the staff by the principal” (p. 7). The researchers in this study believe “purposeful leadership” occurs when the principal understands the needs of the school, is actively involved in the school’s work, and does not exert total control over the staff. They concluded that principals in effective schools are involved in curriculum discussions and influence the content of curriculum guidelines, influence teachers’ instructional strategies only when they judge it necessary, and believe in monitoring students’ progress over a period of years (Mortimore & Sammons, 1987).

Doud and Keller (1998) state, “It is important for today’s principals to nurture the leadership talent of others, and to help identify, encourage, and mentor aspiring school leaders” (p. 9). According to Eisner (2002), the school administrator is in a position to recognize talent among faculty members and develop the leadership potential of teachers by initiating activities that promote and support teacher initiatives. In order to successfully fulfill the role of instructional leader and improve schools, elementary principals of the future must have “a combination of better preparation, visionary insight into what schools can and should become, the ability to influence others to share that vision, and realistic expectations of what he or she is able to accomplish” (Doud & Keller, 1998, p. 10). Fullan (2003) contends, “The principal of the future must lead a complex learning organization by helping to establish new cultures in schools that have deep capacities to engage in continuous problem solving to improve” (p. 28).

Leadership Traits

“Effective leadership emanates from the interaction of a set of personal qualities with specific behaviors that are appropriate to a particular context” (Lezotte & McKee, 2006, p. 16). According to Hoy and Miskel (2001), self-confidence, stress tolerance, emotional maturity, and integrity are some of the personality traits associated with leader effectiveness. Self-confident leaders are more likely to have high expectations and demonstrate persistency in attaining the high goals set for themselves and others (Hoy & Miskel, 2001). Leaders are motivated extrinsically and intrinsically by the need for power and achievement, task and interpersonal needs, as well as high

expectations for success. “Highly motivated leaders are likely to be more effective than individuals with low expectations, modest goals and limited self-efficacy” (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 397). Emotionally mature leaders tend to exhibit a positive self-regard and are oriented toward self-improvement (Hoy & Miskel, 2001). Bennis and Nanus (1985) believe that positive self-regard consists of knowing one’s strengths, having the capacity to develop those strengths, and having the ability to fit one’s strengths and weaknesses with the needs of the organization. They go on to say that leaders who possess self-regard are good at their jobs, enjoy and are proud of their work, as their work reflects their value system. Kouzes and Posner (2002) posit that leaders must “explore [their] inner territory” and “know what [they] care about ... because [they] can only be authentic when leading others according to the principles that matter most to [them]” (p. 52).

Covey (1991) describes eight characteristics he believes are discernible in people who are considered principle-centered leaders. He believes principle-centered leaders are continually learning through questioning, reading, listening and observing and they are service oriented, constantly thinking of others. He says they radiate positive energy, believe in other people, lead balanced lives, and view life as an adventure. Covey also believes principle-centered leaders are synergistic, drawing on the strengths of others, and they achieve self-renewal by exercising the body, mind, emotions, and spirit on a regular basis.

Kouzes and Posner (2002) believe the foundation of leadership is credibility. “We must believe that their word can be trusted, that they’ll do what they say, that they’re personally excited and enthusiastic about the direction in which we’re headed, and

that they have the knowledge and skill to lead” (pp. 32-33). Leaders are considered credible when their actions match their deeds (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Lezotte & McKee, 2006).

Bennis and Nanus (1985) state, “Trust is the lubrication that makes it possible for organizations to work” and the “glue that maintains organizational integrity” (pp. 43-44). They further state that leaders establish trust by establishing a position and staying the course toward the implementation of the leader’s vision. In leadership surveys, honesty is the characteristic selected more often than any other as the most important in the leader-follower relationship (Ferrandino, 2001; Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Followers want to know that their leader is truthful, ethical, principled, and worthy of their trust. “Honesty is strongly tied to values and ethics. We simply don’t trust people who can’t or won’t tell us their values, ethics, and standards” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 28).

Wilmore (2002), states school leaders must act with integrity and establish trust with stakeholders so that even unpopular decisions are supported. She goes on to say that school leaders lose their effectiveness when they lose their integrity and stakeholders no longer trust them. Lezotte and McKee (2006) believe:

All too often, school administrators flunk the trustworthy test. They tend to fail for two main reasons. First, most administrators have neither thought deeply about what they believe and value, nor have they spent much time attempting to articulate their core beliefs and values to the follower. The second way administrators flunk the trustworthy test is to fail to “walk the talk.” (pp. 19-20)

In recent surveys conducted by Kouzes and Posner (2002), more than 70% of respondents chose the ability to look ahead as one of the most sought-after leadership

traits. Leaders must be able to choose an appropriate direction for the organization. Followers expect the leader to have a well-defined orientation toward the future and want to know “what the organization will look like, feel like, be like when it arrives at its destination” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 29). For the school leader, this means constantly examining new research, best practices, and new systems to see how the school can become more effective (Lezotte & McKee, 2006).

Oftentimes, change is necessary in order for an organization to realize its vision, or reach its destination. “Effective leaders work for change—first in people, who will then help change the system, the culture, and the nature of the work itself” (Lezotte & McKee, 2006, p. 35). Promoting change in people by nurturing and challenging them, assisting them in growth and development, and creating a learning culture, allows organizations to grow and flourish (Hoerr, 2005). Leaders must inspire followers to buy-in to the change process by creating and communicating the vision of the preferred future, create some pressure and a sense of urgency for change without causing a sense of panic, hopelessness, and despair (Lezotte & McKee, 2006).

According to Waters et al. (2003), effective leaders:

Understand how to balance pushing for change while at the same time, protecting aspects of culture, values, and norms worth preserving. They know which policies, practices, resources and incentives to align and how to align them with organizational priorities. They know how to gauge the magnitude of change they are calling for and how to tailor their leadership strategies accordingly. Finally, they understand and value the people in the organization. They know when, how, and why to create learning environments that support people, connect them with one another, and provide the knowledge, skills, and resources they need to succeed. (p. 2)

Positive emotions communicated by the leader through words, demeanor, and action are the fuel to inspire optimal performance from members of an organization (Kouzes

& Posner, 2002). Great leaders help everyone improve their effectiveness by setting the vision, listening, understanding, motivating, reinforcing, making tough decisions, praising, and taking responsibility when things fall apart (Hoerr, 2005). Leaders are expected to be cheerleaders who offer encouragement and optimism in good and bad times (Lezotte & McKee, 2006). In terms of school leadership, Hoerr (2005) posits, “good leaders embrace these challenges and move schools forward” (p. 5). Through their observations, Lezotte and McKee (2006) have found that the leaders of schools that are moving forward tend to delegate routine business of the school in order to give the change process the time and attention it demands. Lezotte and McKee (2006) believe that an effective leader is a very important factor in determining the degree to which a school or district is successful in implementing positive and sustainable change. They also believe that the educational leader must “establish, nurture, and maintain a cultural mindset of continuous improvement among the followers” in order to “initiate, plan, and implement effective and sustainable school reform that will lead to improved student learning” (p. 23). “Current and future leaders in education need two things if they are going to successfully navigate the “perfect storm” and successfully lead sustainable school reform: a proven and practical model of continuous improvement, and the knowledge, skills and behaviors needed to lead it” (Lezotte & McKee, 2006, p. 9).

Hoy and Miskel (2001) define competence as “having a mastery of task-relevant knowledge and skills to accomplish a goal in an effective fashion” (p. 398). They state that competence is mandatory for a leader and the knowledge and skills required for competence in a leadership role must be developed in the context of practice.

Kouzes and Posner (2002) refer to leadership competency as “the leader’s track record and ability to get things done” (p. 29). “Followers expect leaders to know what they are doing and bring a cadre of knowledge and skills to the organization” (Lezotte & McKee, 2006, pp. 21-22). Competence inspires confidence in the followership that a leader will be able to guide an organization in the direction it needs to go (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). By observing where leaders spend their time, the followership in an organization can infer the vision, values, and priorities of an organization (Lezotte & McKee, 2006). The implication for school leaders is “Stakeholders need to know that you are a principal with character, that you value honor, and that you are driven by an unending passion to do everything you can to promote the success of all students, faculty and staff members, families—of the entire learning community—to reach the vision of excellence” (Wilmore, 2002, p. 81).

Measuring Behaviors of Leaders

Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ)

Spillane et al. (2004) contend “to understand leadership practice, it is essential to go beyond a consideration of the roles, strategies, and traits of the individuals who occupy formal leadership positions to investigate how the practice of leadership is stretched over leaders, followers, and the material and symbolic artifacts in the situation” (p. 27). In the 1940s, John K. Hemphill and Alvin Coons developed the leader behavior description questionnaire (LBDQ) with which studies were conducted at Ohio State University. The LBDQ, which was later refined by Andrew Halpin and B. J. Winer, measures two dimensions of leader behavior—initiating structure and

consideration (Hoy & Miskel, 2001). Halpin (as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2001) describes initiating structure as any leader behavior that delineates the relationship between the leader and subordinates while at the same time, establishes the defined patterns of the organization, channels of communication and methods of procedure. Consideration is described as leader behavior that indicates friendship, warmth, trust, interest, and respect between the leader and subordinates. The Ohio State Studies found that in assessing leader effectiveness, superiors tended to emphasize initiating structure while subordinates tended to emphasize consideration (Halpin, as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2001). Hoy and Brown (as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2001; Leithwood et al., 1992) investigated the relationship of principals' leadership styles and the "zone of acceptance" of teachers. The "zone of acceptance" is defined by Barnard and Simon (as cited in Hoy & Miskel, 2001) as the range of leader behaviors within which subordinates are willing to accept decisions made by the leader. The findings of studies conducted by Hoy and Brown indicated that school administrators who exhibit frequent behaviors in both initiating structure and consideration tend to produce situations that are conducive to a broad zone of teacher acceptance. When initiation of structure is limited or neglected, the leader's impact on the organization is limited and if consideration is neglected, subordinates become dissatisfied (Hoy & Miskel, 2001).

Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Model

The Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Model focuses on the relationship and task behavior of the leader, leadership styles, and maturity levels of those being

led (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). The model consists of four quadrants that leaders can be placed into, depending on their behavior: High-task/low-relationship, high-task/high-relationship, low-task/high-relationship, and low-task/low-relationship. Hersey and Blanchard identified four leadership styles to correspond to the four behavior quadrants: telling, selling, participating, and delegating.

Hersey (1992) defines leadership style as “the patterns of behavior (words and actions of the leader) as perceived by others” (p. 27). The behavior and leadership style of the leader is in direct relationship to the maturity or readiness level of those being led (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

To paraphrase Hersey and Blanchard (1982), the telling (high task/low relationship) style is characterized by giving a great deal of direction to followers and is appropriate when followers are new or inexperienced and need a great deal of guidance and encouragement to complete a task successfully. The selling (high task/high relationship) style is characterized by the leader attempting to build buy-in with the followers by presenting the importance of the task and working with individuals to set goals. It is appropriate when followers are willing and motivated, but lack the skills to successfully complete a task.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) suggest that as the maturity or readiness level of the followers increases even more, the leader employs the participation (high relationship/low task) style of leadership where decision-making is shared and the leader’s main role is to facilitate and communicate. It is used when groups have the necessary skills but may be unwilling to start or complete a task. The delegating (low relationship/low task) style is useful when followers have a high degree of

competence and maturity. The leader identifies the problem and followers are given the responsibility for carrying out the task.

Practices of Exemplary Leaders

Through their study that began in 1983, James Kouzes and Barry Posner (2002) have identified what they believe to be the Five Practices of Exemplary Leaders:

- Modeling the Way
- Inspiring a Shared Vision
- Challenging the Process
- Enabling Others to Act
- Encouraging the Heart

This framework grew from the collection and analysis of in-depth interviews and case studies from personal-best leadership experiences. By developing a set of behavioral statements describing the actions that make up the five practices, the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) was created in both a Self and Observer form. The LPI consists of thirty statements that are cast on a ten-point Likert scale. The instrument has been administered to over 350,000 managers and non-managers in a variety of organizations and disciplines (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Model the Way

According to Kouzes and Posner (2002), exemplary leaders must model the behaviors they expect of others if they want to gain commitment from constituents and achieve the highest standards. Sergiovanni (1996) defines modeling as,

“accepting responsibility as head follower of the school’s covenant by modeling purposes and values in thought, word, and action” (p. 89). Words and deeds must be consistent with the values and vision they espouse (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). DePree (1992) contends, “Leadership can never stop at words. Leaders must act, and they can do so only in the context of their beliefs. Without action or principles, no one can become a leader” (p. 6). “Constituents expect leaders to show up, to pay attention, and to participate directly in the process of getting extraordinary things done” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 77). It is through example that the leader’s personal commitment to the vision is evidenced, making the vision and values tangible for willing followers. “Modeling the way is essentially about earning the right and the respect to lead through direct individual involvement and action. People first follow the person, then the plan” (p. 15). Kouzes and Posner (2002) prescribe two commitments leaders should make if they are to effectively model the way—find your voice by clarifying your personal values (p. 73) and set the example for others by aligning actions with shared values (p. 105).

Inspire a Shared Vision

“Leaders have a desire to make something happen, to change the way things are, to create something that no one else has ever created before” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 15). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (as cited in Leithwood & Steinbach, 1995) present “identifying and articulating a vision” as one dimension of leadership practice. They define this dimension as leader behavior “aimed at identifying new opportunities for his or her school, and developing, articulating, and

inspiring others with his or her vision of the future” (p. 257). They go on to say that visions that are laden with values lead to unconditional commitment from constituents. Kouzes and Posner (2002) agree that leaders cannot command commitment to a vision from constituents, they can only inspire it, and “people will not follow until they accept a vision as their own” (p. 15). With regard to schools, Leithwood and Steinbach (1995) believe that in order for a common mission to be pursued, staff practices must be motivated by common goals related to the mission, therefore, success in creating the common goals among staff is an important aspect of school leadership expertise. The commitments on the part of the leader necessary to inspire a shared vision are to envision the future by imagining the exciting possibilities (p. 139) and then to enlist others in a common vision by appealing to what the leader and others aspire to have in common (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Challenge the Process

Leaders challenge the process by searching for opportunities to be innovative, grow, and improve. They accomplish this by recognizing and supporting good ideas and challenging the system in order to get new products, processes, services, and systems adopted. Leaders are learners who recognize that innovation and change involve experimentation, risk and failure (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). According to Hoerr (2005), “Leading schools involves creating an environment in which everyone grows, including the teachers and the principal. In that environment, principals listen to teachers, and listening implies a willingness to respond” (p. 5). Blase (1987) found that principals encouraging teachers to attend workshops and conferences and to take

university course work facilitate professional growth and self-esteem. With respect to principals, Lashway (2002) states, “When leaders are learners themselves, they are better able to empathize and serve as models when they ask teachers to rethink their practice.” In order to challenge the process, leaders must commit to searching for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow, and improve (p. 204) not only themselves, but also the organization. They must also experiment and take risks, constantly generate small wins, and learn from the mistakes (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Enabling Others to Act

Kouzes and Posner (2002) state that exemplary leaders “enable others to act by not hoarding the power they have but by giving it away” (p. 18). Blase (1987) reported that teachers believed that due to time and knowledge constraints, it is important that principals extend authority to teachers. He also reported that teachers characterized effective principals as those who encouraged teachers to become involved at all levels, worked collaboratively with faculties, based goal-setting processes on faculty participation, and encouraged teacher participation by developing relationships. Kouzes and Posner (2002) reiterate that exemplary leaders foster collaboration and build trust. They go on to say that through a relationship founded on trust and confidence, leaders are able to turn their constituents into leaders. Eisner (2002) states:

Administrators can be in a position to recognize different kinds of talent among faculty members; they can help initiate activities and support the initiatives of teachers. They can develop an intimacy that will enable them to

promote and develop the leadership potential of teachers. Thus, paradoxically, the principal as leader is most successful when he or she no longer leads but promotes the initiative and leadership of others. (p. 578)

Kouzes and Posner (2002) believe that in making a commitment to foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust (p. 277) and to strengthen others by sharing power and discretion (p. 311), exemplary leaders will be able to effectively enable others to act.

Encourage the Heart

“Leaders who are most effective in generating results will appeal not only to the bottom line, but also to the heart. In fact, one of the best strategies for improving results is connecting with people’s deepest, heartfelt hopes” (DuFour, 2004, p. 67). Effective leaders link rewards with performance, both visibly and behaviorally through encouragement (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). In Blase’s (1987) study, teachers indicated that praise from effective principals was particularly meaningful because teachers considered them to be knowledgeable. Smith and Andrews (1989) posit, “The visible presence of the principal appears to be most keenly felt when the principal serves as rewarder, giving positive attention to staff and student accomplishments” (p. 19). Kouzes and Posner (2002) state that showing appreciation for people’s contributions and creating a culture of celebration are part of a leader’s job. “Leaders also know that celebrations and rituals, when done with authenticity and from the heart, build a strong sense of collective identity and community spirit that can carry a group through extraordinarily tough times” (p. 20). DuFour (2004) agrees that basic needs of the heart are to feel a sense of connectedness, to feel as

sense of significance, and to feel we are making a difference. He further states that schools need leaders who address matters of the heart by creating a collaborative culture of success, where team members understand the importance of their contributions in achieving common goals and successes of individuals, as well as the entire school are celebrated in very public ways. According to Kouzes and Posner (2002), the commitments related to encouraging the heart are recognizing contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence (p. 348) and celebrating the values and victories by creating a spirit of community (p. 380).

Student Performance

In the mid-1990s, IBM hosted a meeting of U.S. governors. From this meeting, the accountability and standards movement was created. To advocates of education reform and policymakers, what was needed was a system that would hold students and their schools accountable for student learning (Lezotte & McKee, 2006). Leaders of the NAESP (2001) state, “Educators, policymakers, parents, business leaders, and others seem to like the notion of making public our expectations for students and adults, and then holding people accountable to those expectations” (p. 1). They agree that significant political pressure to deliver on the standards movement’s promise of improved student achievement has been created by high-stakes testing and accountability (NAESP, 2001). Wilmore (2002) states that schools attempting to individualize instructional approaches to fit the unique needs of every learner have been impacted by the emphasis on high-stakes testing. Lezotte and McKee (2006)

believe the major change forces of “raising the standards bar and requiring all students to jump over it” have redefined educational leadership (p. 2).

Morrow believes that “high-stakes tests are a serious threat to excellence and national standards” (p. 653). He is critical of holding schools accountable on the basis of one test and believes that rating schools based on high-stakes testing creates incentives to exclude poor performing students, encourages tolerance of dropping out, and encourages adults to cheat to protect jobs and reputations. Morrow argues that multiple measures should be developed to assess students rather than giving students multiple opportunities to test in the same manner. He says, “Schooling, its standards and our means of assessment ought to share a common goal ... a thorough and efficient education that equips [students] for life in a democracy, for earning, and for more learning” (p. 659).

No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB)

The *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001* (NCLB) was signed by President Bush on January 8, 2002. It is a reauthorization of programs established under the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965* (ESEA). Under NCLB, all public school districts, campuses and the state are evaluated annually for Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP). Student groups must meet performance standards on reading/language arts and mathematics tests, student participation standards, graduation and attendance standards in order for schools and districts to meet AYP Texas Education Agency (TEA) (2005). The requirements to meet AYP are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1. 2005 Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) Indicators

Area	Standard	
Reading/Language Arts 2004-05 tests (TAKS, SDAA II, LDAA, and RPTE in Grades 3-8 & 10) All students and each student group that meets minimum size requirements: - African American - Hispanic - White - Econ. Disadvantaged - Special Education - Limited English Proficient	Performance Standard: 53% % counted as proficient on test* for students enrolled the full academic year subject to the Federal 5% cap	Performance Improvement: 10% decrease in percent not proficient on test* <i>and</i> any improvement on the other measure (Graduation Rate or Attendance Rate)
	Participation Standard: 95% Participation in the assessment program for students enrolled on the date of testing (no more than 5% of students absent)	Average Participation Rate: 95% participation based on combined 2003-04 and 2004-05 assessment data
Mathematics 2004-05 tests (TAKS, SDAA II, LDAA, and LAT in grades 3-8 & 10) All students and each student group that meets minimum size requirements (see above)	Performance Standard: 42% % counted as proficient on test* for students enrolled the full academic year subject to the Federal 5% cap	Performance Improvement: 10% decrease in percent not proficient on test* <i>and</i> any improvement on the other measure (Graduation Rate or Attendance Rate)
	Participation Standard: 95% Participation in the assessment program for students enrolled on the date of testing (no more than 5% of students absent)	Average Participation Rate: 95% participation based on combined 2003-04 and 2004-05 assessment data

TABLE 1. Continued

Area	Standard	
Other Indicator**	Graduation Rate Standard:	Attendance Rate
All students	70% or any improvement.	Standard: 90% or any improvement.
Graduation Rate	Graduation Rate for high schools,	Attendance Rate for
Class of 2004	combined elementary/secondary	elementary schools,
Attendance Rate	schools offering grade 12, and	middle/junior high schools,
2003-04	districts offering grade 12	combined
		elementary/secondary
		schools not offering grade
		12, and districts not offering
		grade 12

* Student passing standard on TAKS. No more than 5% of students in the district's participation denominator can be counted as proficient based on meeting ARD expectations on 1) SDAA II for students tested below enrolled grade level, or 2) LDAA. Results for the RPTE are counted based on number of years in U.S. schools.

** Student groups are not required to meet the Graduation Rate or Attendance Rate standards; however, they may be required to show improvement on the Graduation Rate or Attendance Rate as part of performance improvement for Reading/Language Arts or Mathematics.

Source: TEA, 2005

Lashway (2003b) states that NCLB requirements of improved achievement across all student subgroups has sharpened the focus on test scores since the failure of one subgroup to make progress can cause a school or district to be considered low-performing. When a school fails to meet required improvement, NCLB prescribes a variety of interventions from providing technical assistance or requiring a written improvement plan to more aggressive interventions, such as state takeovers of schools (Lashway, 2003b). Lezotte and McKee (2006) describe NCLB as the “capstone of the standards and accountability movement” (p. 3). They state that these three forces—the standards and accountability movements along with NCLB—have “fundamentally changed the core business of public education from adult-centered teaching to

student-centered learning” (p. 5). NCLB requires schools to continually improve year after year with standards increasing until 100% of students show proficiency in reading and mathematics. Lezotte and McKee (2006) compare these AYP requirements of NCLB to Deming’s Total Quality Management philosophy that advocates continuous improvement and the tenets of the Effective Schools movement, which advocate continuous monitoring of student achievement.

Texas Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS)

In 1984, the Texas Legislature passed House Bill 72, which called for a system of school accountability based primarily on student achievement. The Academic Excellence Indicator System was introduced in 1990-91 and has since developed and evolved through legislation, advisory committee and commissioner of education recommendations, and actions of the State Board of Education and Texas Education Agency. The system pulls together a wide range of information on the performance of students in every school and district in Texas that is put into an annual AEIS report. A subset of the performance measures computed for AEIS are used to assign an accountability rating of Exemplary, Recognized, Academically Acceptable, or Academically Unacceptable to each school and district in the state (TEA, n.d.). The requirements for AEIS accountability ratings as applicable to elementary schools are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2. Requirements for AEIS Rating Categories (as Applicable to Elementary Schools)

	Academically Acceptable	Recognized	Exemplary
Base Indicators			
Spring 2005 TAKS - All students And each student group meeting minimum size: - African American - Hispanic - White - Econ. Disadvantaged	Meets each standard: -Reading/ELA.....50% - Writing50% - Social Studies..... 50% - Mathematics 35% - Science 25% OR meets Required Improvement	Meets 70% standard for each subject OR Meets 65% floor and Required Improvement	Meets 90% standard for each subject
Spring 2005 SDAA II All students (if meets minimum size criteria)	Meets 50% standard (Met ARD Expectations)	Meets 70% standard (Met ARD Expectations)	Meets 90% standard (Met ARD Expectations)
Additional Provisions			
Exceptions	Applied if district/campus would be <i>Academically Unacceptable</i> due to not meeting the <i>Academically Acceptable</i> criteria on up to 3 test measures.	Exceptions cannot be used to move to a rating of <i>Recognized</i> .	Exceptions cannot be used to move to a rating of <i>Exemplary</i> .

Source: TEA, 2005

Glickman (2000) states, “Standards policies are a significant issue in education because they affect nearly every student, faculty member, and school in the country and have a direct bearing on how we define well-educated students, the curriculum to be taught, and the ultimate purpose of our schools” (p. 47). He believes that most legislative reforms enact:

- More direct teacher-centered instruction
- More homework
- More standardization and restrictions of the curriculum
- More testing of students

- More alignment of lesson plans with test objectives
- More uniform lockstep retention policies
- More and tighter evaluation of teachers (Glickman, 1989, pp. 6-7)

Glickman (2000) points out several positive outcomes of the standards movement including:

- Expectation of every student to achieve at higher levels, holding teachers and schools responsible for proving that all students can achieve standards
- Providing greater funds and targeted assistance where groups of students are not achieving at equitable levels
- Closing or reconstituting schools showing no improvement over many years
- Equalization and redistribution of state funding
- State legislatures/courts saying that a quality education for all students is a constitutional responsibility and must be funded accordingly. (pp. 47-48)

He also acknowledges negative outcomes of the state standards such as state control of school operations, basing decisions on bad science, and establishing narrow standards for academic areas, requiring frequent testing using a single-format test, and following the idea that every student must master skills by a certain grade (Glickman, 2000). McNeil (2000) proposes that the accountability system in Texas “has adverse effects on teaching and learning, stifles democratic discourse, and perpetuates inequalities for minority students” (p. 729). She states that a one-test accountability system “rules out the possibility of discussing student learning in terms of cognitive and intellectual development, in terms of growth, in terms of social awareness and social conscience, in terms of social and emotional development” (p. 733). McGill-Franzen and Allington (2006) remind us that reading achievement is a high-visibility focus in our current accountability systems. They argue that “an accountability system contaminated by flunking students, narrow test-prep curricula, manipulation of special education accommodations, and disregard for summer

learning and forgetting is not an accountability system at all” (p. 766). They go on to say that “neither the federal accountability scheme embodied in NCLB nor any state accountability system currently provides good information on student reading achievement because of the four contaminating factors” (p. 766) and posit that both accountability systems “provide incentives to contaminate reported results” (p. 766).

Implications for Principals

With increased focus on accountability and student success, the role of the principal has transitioned from school manager to the main educational facilitator of the learning community. The principal serves as the school liaison for all community resources, the primary voice of the school, and the school catalyst for success for all stakeholders (Wilmore, 2002). According to Gullatt and Lofton (1996), the principal is key in promoting instructional improvement. They agree that a principal should have substantial knowledge of curriculum and instruction, provide a vision for the school, communicate effectively, promote a positive learning environment, and have high expectations for all in order to be an effective instructional leader. Lashway (2002) states, “Instructional improvement presents leaders with a complex challenge, requiring them to understand good teaching in the classroom and to be good teachers in working with their staffs” (p. 3). According to Lezotte and McKee (2006), “The effective leader must now be a “jack of all trades” and “master of all.” But the specifics of what that means is less clear in relation to the expectations implied by NCLB and state mandates” (p. 6).

Bowsher (as cited in Lezotte & McKee, 2006) found that only a small number of the more than 120 tasks that are the responsibility of the principal directly impact student learning and performance. Gullatt and Lofton (1996) posit “Principals encourage student academic gain by the ways in which they govern the school, build strong collaborative relationships, and organize and allocate professional work time” (p. 3). Andrews and Soder (1987) conducted a two-year study in Seattle elementary schools in which they attempted to find a link between the instructional leadership practices of principals and student achievement. Their findings suggest that teacher perceptions of the principal as instructional leader are critical to student achievement in reading and mathematics as “the normal equivalent gain scores of students in strong-leader schools were significantly greater in both total reading and total mathematics than those of students in schools rated as having average or weak leaders” (p. 10). In their study testing the relationship between instructional leadership behaviors of the principal and student achievement, Heck, Larsen and Marcoulides (1990) found “the principal’s role in establishing strong school climate and instructional organization is precisely the area that strongly predicts school achievement” (p. 117). Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) found four categories of principal behavior that are important in improving school effectiveness. The categories are goals, factors that account for what students learn, strategies used to influence factors, and decision-making.

Lashway (2003a) contends that the role of school leaders as change agents has been solidified by NCLB. The focus of change and the leader’s understanding of the magnitude of change they are leading are two variables that determine whether or not

leadership will have a positive or negative impact on student achievement (Waters et al., 2003). “When leaders concentrate on the wrong school and/or classroom practices, or miscalculate the magnitude or “order” of the change they are attempting to implement, they can negatively impact student achievement” (Waters et al., 2003, p. 6). Lashway (2002) contends that leaders are not presented a coherent, aligned vision for change with the standards and accountability movement. He states that while principals focus on improving instruction to meet the testing standards of NCLB, they must also contend with teacher qualification requirements and the right of students to transfer from low-performing schools.

Lashway (2003b) cites a study conducted by the Washington School Research Center in elementary schools where the percentage of students meeting state standards was significantly above the state average. Through interviews of teachers and principals of these schools, four factors were identified: a caring and collaborative environment, strong leadership, focused, intentional instruction, and the use of assessment data to guide instruction. Lashway also cites research in Texas conducted by Just for the Kids, Inc., in which promising practices used by high-performing schools with low-income students are identified. These practices include:

- High-energy, hands-on principal leadership that articulates the vision and keeps the school focused on instruction.
- Broad-based planning that sets clear instructional priorities and meaningful benchmarks for improvement.
- Focused research-based professional development that is driven by identified instructional needs.
- Continual monitoring and assessment.
- Flexible grouping for instruction based on identified student needs.
- Immediate intervention for struggling readers. (p. 4-5)

Researchers have offered demographics, insufficient resources, and ineffective school practices as explanations for low student performance. “Even at this early stage of research it seems evident that turning around a school requires leaders who nurture an educational vision, keep a laser-like focus on instruction, and work to build a professional learning community” (Lashway, 2003b, p. 5).

Lezotte and McKee (2006) remind us that contextual forces called for by NCLB such as sanctions, the disaggregation of student achievement data, Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), and increased testing are not going to disappear. Principals will require more autonomy, professional development and resources if they are to be held accountable for ensuring the high levels of achievement for all students required by NCLB and the state accountability system. Otherwise, the job of the principal will be impossible (NAESP, 2001). Lezotte and McKee (2006) liken the elements of NCLB to Leithwood’s four-fold classification of accountability approaches; The Market Approach, The Decentralization Approach, The Professional Approach, and The Managerial Approach. According to Leithwood, “This eclectic approach to accountability creates a job that’s unmanageable, leaving the educational leader feeling pulled in a dozen different directions. The challenge to current and aspiring leaders is to identify and implement the elements of these approaches that make sense within the context of their school or district, and either obtain the skills or find the expertise needed to make it happen” (p. 7). Accountability measures and the need to meet state-mandated curriculum standards has created an atmosphere of intense pressure in which elementary school principals rise to the challenges facing them and

though the comparison and ranking of schools may seem unfair, principals are held accountable for student achievement (Ferrandino, 2001).

Summary

A vast field of literature describing leadership and the practices of effective leaders is available today. Authors define leadership as a relationship between a leader and followers. In order to build that relationship, the leader must earn the trust of the followers, articulate a vision for the organization, establish stakeholder buy-in to the vision, and rely on the strengths of others to attain set goals that agree with the vision. Leaders are responsible for learning—the learning of others as well as their own. Many agree that effective leadership is necessary if an organization is to realize success.

The accountability and standards movement has caused the role of the school leader, especially the campus principal, to change at a rapid pace. The responsibilities of the principalship are challenging and demanding. Principals are accountable to all stakeholders for the success of all students. The principal serves as manager, supervisor, and instructional leader, working collaboratively with teachers to ensure curriculum, instruction, and assessment correspond. High visibility, effective communication, and building community are key to effective school leadership. There is a growing recognition that leadership is distributed throughout the school community (Copland, 2001). For this reason, it is necessary that principals recognize and promote leadership potential in others. School leaders must exhibit the leader traits of credibility, competence, positive self-regard, and authenticity. They must

have high expectations for student success and serve as change agents if schools are going to meet increasing national and state standards. School leaders provide a critical bridge between reform initiatives and the positive impact these reforms can have on all students (Leithwood et al., 2004).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study was conducted to examine the relationship between student achievement and leadership practices of elementary principals in Region V Education Service Center (ESC), Texas. Data were collected to determine the perceived leadership practices of Region V elementary principals, demographic characteristics of participants, and student performance ratings of the campuses these administrators serve. An analysis was made on both the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) Self and Observer instruments. Gall, Borg, and Gall (2002) report that much of the research done in the field of education involves the use of surveys to gather information. Survey techniques were used to gather data for this research project.

This study was guided by three research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by principals and selected SBDM committee members in elementary schools in Region V ESC, Texas, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003)?
2. Are there differences in the responses of principals and selected SBDM committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in elementary schools in Region V ESC, Texas?

3. Do selected demographic variables impact responses of principals and selected SBDM committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in elementary schools in Region V ESC, Texas?

The four basic sections presented in this chapter include: Population, instrumentation, data collection procedures, and data analysis.

Population

There are 73 elementary schools in Region V Education Service Center, Texas, that house some configuration of grades kindergarten through six. Information from the Region V ESC Directory of schools was used to determine study participants. Based on the response to surveys, the principal and selected site-based decision making committee members from 51 of the 73 campuses were included in this study.

Instrumentation

Data collected for this study were utilized to assess leadership practices and student performance. The data for leadership practices were collected using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003). Campus principals were given the LPI-Self (Appendix A) and campus site-based committee members were given the LPI-Observer (Appendix B). Permission was granted by Dr. Barry Posner for use of the LPI in this study (Appendix E).

The reliability coefficients for the LPI, as measured by Cronbach's Alpha, are consistently above the .75 level. Aiken (as cited by Kouzes & Posner, 2002a) states that instruments with reliabilities above .60 are considered good. The five leadership

practices measured by the LPI and their reliability (Cronbach Alpha) coefficients by respondent are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3. Reliability (Cronbach Alpha) Coefficients for the LPI by Respondent Category

Leadership Practice	Self	Observer
Model	.77	.88
Inspire	.87	.92
Challenge	.80	.89
Enable	.75	.88
Encourage	.87	.92

The LPI consists of 30 behavioral statements describing the actions that make up the five practices of exemplary leaders. Respondents rate each statement on a 10-point Likert-type scale. A higher value represents more frequent demonstration of a leadership behavior while a lower value represents less frequent demonstration of the behavior. The instrument has been administered to over 350,000 managers and non-managers in a variety of organizations and disciplines (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a).

According to Kouzes and Posner (2002a), the LPI has strong structural and concurrent validity. “Responses to the thirty leadership behavior items were subjected to a principle factoring method with iteration and varimax rotation. Five factors were extracted with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and accounting for 60.5 percent of the variance” (p. 14). The five factors obtained were consistent with the five subscales of the LPI. To test the stability of the five-factor solution, factor-analysis was applied to data from various subsamples and in each case, the factor structure was similar to the factor-analysis of the entire sample. Kouzes and Posner (2002a) report findings are

relatively consistent across people, gender, ethnicity, cultural backgrounds, and organizational characteristics. They also cite a 1998 study by Knab that concluded principals from the U.S. Department of Education's "Blue Ribbon" schools had consistently higher LPI scores than their counterparts from non-Blue Ribbon schools.

In addition to the LPI, a participant demographic questionnaire was also sent to each study participant. Data indicating student performance were collected from the 2005 Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) database provided by the Texas Education Agency.

Data Collection Procedures

The procedures for the collection of data for this study included an initial mail-out to seventy-three elementary principals in Region V ESC, Texas, in May 2005. The mail-out included an introductory letter (Appendix F & G), an Information Sheet (Appendix H) that explained the purpose of the study and assured participants that participation was voluntary and that responses were confidential, the survey instrument for the principal and a similar packet addressed to the chairman of the campus site-based decision making (SBDM) committee. The SBDM committee chairman packet contained five surveys to be distributed among committee members. Consent was given by the participant to become part of the study sample by completing and returning the survey instrument. The surveys were coded in order to identify non-responders so that follow-up contact could be made if the first mailing did not yield a sufficient return rate.

A 60-70% response rate was expected. Since this was not accomplished with the first mailing, a second mailing was sent in August 2005. Shortly after the second mailing, the Region V ESC area was devastated by Hurricane Rita, which greatly hindered data collection. After recovery efforts were completed in spring 2006, additional follow-up procedures were utilized, including telephone calls, e-mail communication, and in-person contact in an attempt to achieve a greater rate of return. The data collection yielded responses from the principal and two or more SBDM committee members from 51 elementary campuses in the region, representing a 70% response rate. The corresponding campus ratings were then obtained from the Texas Education Agency database.

Data Analysis

After the data collection was completed, responses from the surveys were tabulated using the LPI scoring software. The LPI information was then transferred to a spreadsheet to be utilized with SPSS statistical software. The aggregate response data was statistically computed using SPSS statistical software, analyzed, and outputs were interpreted.

The results of the data analysis for this study were reported using both numerical and graphic techniques. This included graphs, charts, and tables to supplement and support the narrative portion. Analytical tables including information relating to the research questions and supporting indicators were utilized to report the research data from the raw scores generated by the collected survey instruments.

Summary

A discussion of the methodology and procedures used in this study was included in Chapter III. This chapter was presented in four basic sections: population, instrumentation, data collection procedures, and data analysis. The data necessary to answer the research questions were acquired from the LPI survey instrument sent to elementary principals and selected SBDM committee members from campuses in Region V ESC, Texas, and campus rating information available from TEA databases. Data analysis was performed using SPSS statistical software. Descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to investigate the relationship between student achievement and leadership practices as perceived by principals and selected site-based decision-making committee members from elementary schools in Region V Education Service Center, Texas.

The continually increasing accountability measures brought about by the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 and the Texas state accountability system as well as increasing diversity in student populations have made the responsibilities of the school principal more demanding. School leaders are required to bear an increased burden due to the increasing emphasis being placed on student performance and the role of the instructional leader. As instructional leaders, Texas elementary principals are challenged to empower teachers, parents, and students to accomplish the extraordinary task of ensuring high levels of student performance for all student groups.

Procedures and Presentation

In April 2005, survey instruments were mailed to 438 potential participants including 73 Region V Texas elementary principals and five site-based decision making committee members from each campus. After a four-week period the response rate was considered low as the self and at least two observer surveys from

only 25% of elementary campuses in the region were returned. Follow-up e-mails were sent to elementary principals, which resulted in the return of surveys from three additional campuses. A second mailing of survey packets in August, 2005, collected responses from 10 additional campuses increasing the response rate to 42% of campuses surveyed. Data collection efforts were thwarted by the results of a hurricane that devastated the entire Region V area on September 24, 2005. Recovery efforts took months to complete, not only in this researcher's school district but in all districts in the region. Data collection resumed in April, 2006, with personal contacts and emails which resulted in survey collection from a total of 51 elementary principals and 155 observers. Sample requirements typically call for a 60-70% return rate from the sample. The 51 survey responses collected from elementary principals represented a return rate of 70% of the needed responses. A minimum of two observer responses were needed for each responding principal. The 155 observer surveys collected exceeded this requirement.

The instruments used in this research were the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)—Self and LP—Observer developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003). The 30-question survey is answered using a 10-point Likert-type scale. The values for each leadership behavior are as follows: (1) almost never, (2) rarely, (3) seldom, (4) once in a while, (5) occasionally, (6) sometimes, (7) fairly often, (8) usually, (9) very frequently, and (10) almost always. The 30 questions are divided into groups of six, representing the five major leadership practices identified by Kouzes and Posner: Model the Way, Inspire a Shared Vision, Challenge the Process, Enable Others to Act, and Encourage the Heart (Table 4). Individuals rated with the LPI may receive a

minimum score of six and a maximum score of 60 on each of the practices. Participant responses were entered into LPI reporting software which tabulated scores for each of the practices, as well as a total score for each survey instrument.

TABLE 4. Leadership Practices and Corresponding LPI Statement

Leadership Practice	LPI Statement
Challenge the Process	1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26
Inspiring a Shared Vision	2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27
Enabling Others to Act	3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28
Modeling the Way	4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29
Encouraging the Heart	5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30

Demographic data were gathered through the use of an additional questionnaire developed by this researcher to obtain general information about the respondents such as age, gender, ethnicity, and educational experience (Appendices C & D). Table 5 is an illustration of the gender breakdown of the respondents for each survey type. Of the 51 elementary principals participating in the study, 37.3% (n=19) were male, while 62.7% (n=32) were female. Of the responding observers, 2.6% (n=4) were male, while 97.4% (n=151) were female.

TABLE 5. Gender of Respondents

Gender	Principals		Observers	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Male	19	37.3%	4	2.6%
Female	32	62.7%	151	97.4%

The ethnicity of the respondents is presented in Table 6. Of the 51 participating principals, 23.5% (n=12) were African American, 2% (n=1) was Hispanic, and 74.5% (n=38) were White. Of the 155 participating observers, 8.4% (n=13) were African American, 2.6% (n=4) were Hispanic, and 89% (n=138) were White.

TABLE 6. Ethnicity of Respondents

Ethnicity	Principals		Observers	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
African American	12	23.5%	13	8.4%
Hispanic	1	2.0%	4	2.6%
White	38	74.5%	138	89.0%

Table 7 is an illustration of the age groups represented by the respondents. Of the 155 observers, 10.3% (n=16) were in their 20s, 29.1% (n=45) were in their 30s, 34.8% (n=54) were in their 40s, and 25.8% (n=40) were 50 years of age or older. No principals were below the age of 30, 13.7% (n=7) were in their 30s, 29.4% (n=15) were in their 40s, and 56.9% (n=29) were 50 years of age or older.

TABLE 7. Age Groups of Respondents

Age Group	Principals		Observers	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
20-29	0	0%	16	10.3%
30-39	7	13.7%	45	29.1%
40-49	15	29.4%	54	34.8%
>=50	29	56.9%	40	25.8%

Respondents were asked to select a range representing their years of experience in the field of education. The responses are shown in Table 8. The responding principals were almost evenly distributed into three groups with 29.4% (n=15) had 11-20 years, 37.3% (n=19) had 21-30 years, 33.3% (n=17) had 31 or more years of experience. The highest percentage of participating observers were in the 11-20 years experience group with 42% (n=65), while 29% (n=45) had been in the profession 0-10 years, 21.9% (n=34) had 21=30 years, and 7.1% (n=11) had 31 or more years of experience.

TABLE 8. Experience of Respondents

Years	Principals		Observers	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
0-10	0	0%	45	29.0%
11-20	15	29.4%	65	42.0%
21-30	19	37.3%	34	21.9%
> = 31	17	33.3%	11	7.1%

Texas school districts and individual campuses are annually assigned a rating through the Texas Education Agency's Academic Excellence Indicator System

(AEIS). Four ratings are possible in this system of accountability: exemplary, recognized, academically acceptable, and academically unacceptable. Table 9 is an illustration of the 2005 accountability ratings of the 51 elementary schools included in this study in comparison to the ratings of all elementary schools in the region and state. The highest possible rating of exemplary was earned by 7.8% (n=4) of participating schools, 29.4% (n=15) of schools obtained a recognized rating, 56.9% (n=29) of schools were considered academically acceptable, and 5.9% (n=3) of schools received the lowest possible rating of academically unacceptable. The distribution of ratings among the schools participating in this study was comparable to the rating distribution of all elementary schools in Region V as well as statewide.

TABLE 9. 2005 Accountability Ratings of Elementary Campuses

Rating	State (n=3926)	Region (n=77)	Study Group (n=51)
Exemplary	6.8%	5.2%	7.8%
Recognized	36.6%	32.5%	29.4%
Academically Acceptable	54.5%	55.8%	56.9%
Academically Unacceptable	2.1%	6.5%	5.9%

To determine a campus's rating, the percentage of students passing the reading, math, and science Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) tests were calculated for all students tested on the campus as well as the subgroups of white, African American, Hispanic, and economically disadvantaged students where there are at least 30 students in the group. Because a low percentage of students passing in one subgroup can negatively impact a campus's rating, the actual percentage of

students passing all tests was obtained from the AEIS report for each participating campus. For the 51 responding schools, the percentage of students passing all tests ranged from 96% to 41%. Table 10 is an illustration that 9.8% (n = 5) of the schools had a passing rate of 90-96% on all tests taken, 25.5% (n = 13) of the schools had a passing rate of 80-89% on all tests, 27.5% (n = 14) had a passing rate of 70-79%, 19.6% (n = 10) had a passing rate of 60-69%, and 17.6% (n = 9) of the schools had a passing rate of 41-59% on all tests taken.

TABLE 10. Percentage of Students Passing All TAKS Tests Taken on Responding Campuses

	Frequency	Percentage
90% - 96%	5	9.8%
80% - 89%	13	25.5%
70% - 79%	14	27.5%
60% - 69%	10	19.6%
41% - 59%	9	17.6%

Results of Related Research Hypotheses

The purpose of this research was to investigate the relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by principals and selected site-based decision making committee members from elementary schools in the Region V Education Service Center (ESC), Texas.

Analysis of Research Question #1

Is there a relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by principals and selected SBDM committee members of elementary

schools in Region V ESC, Texas, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003)?

In order to investigate the relationship between student performance and perceived leadership practices the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)—Self score and the average observer score for each campus was calculated for each of the five leadership practices, as well as the total instrument. The student performance indicator, the percent of students passing all TAKS tests, was determined for each of the participating campuses using the TEA Academic Excellence Indicator System reports (2005). Correlations between the LPI scores and the student performance indicator were performed to determine the possible linear relationship between perceived leadership practices and student achievement using the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS) software.

The correlation between the total LPI scores and student achievement, as measured by the percentage of all TAKS tests passed, yielded a Pearson correlation coefficient of $r = .121$ (Table 11). Based on Cohen's (1969) calculation of an effect size for correlation coefficients (as cited in Spatz, 2001), $r = .121$ indicates a small correlation between these two variables. The coefficient of determination ($r^2 = .01$) for this test indicates that only 1% of the variance in the two variables is common variance. The significance value = .226, which is greater than .05, indicates that the correlation between LPI scores and student achievement is not statistically significant and no linear relationship exists between the two variables.

TABLE 11. Correlation between LPI Total Scores (Self and Observer Average) and Percent Passing all TAKS Tests

		LPI Total Scores	Percent Passing All Tests
LPI Total Scores	Pearson Correlation	1	.121
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.226
	N	102	102
Percent Passing All Tests	Pearson Correlation	.121	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.226	
	N	102	102

Sig. > .05 indicates no statistical significance

The scatterplot in Figure 1 is a depiction of the amount of linear relationship between LPI scores and the percent of students passing all tests. A regression line is not clearly visible in the figure.

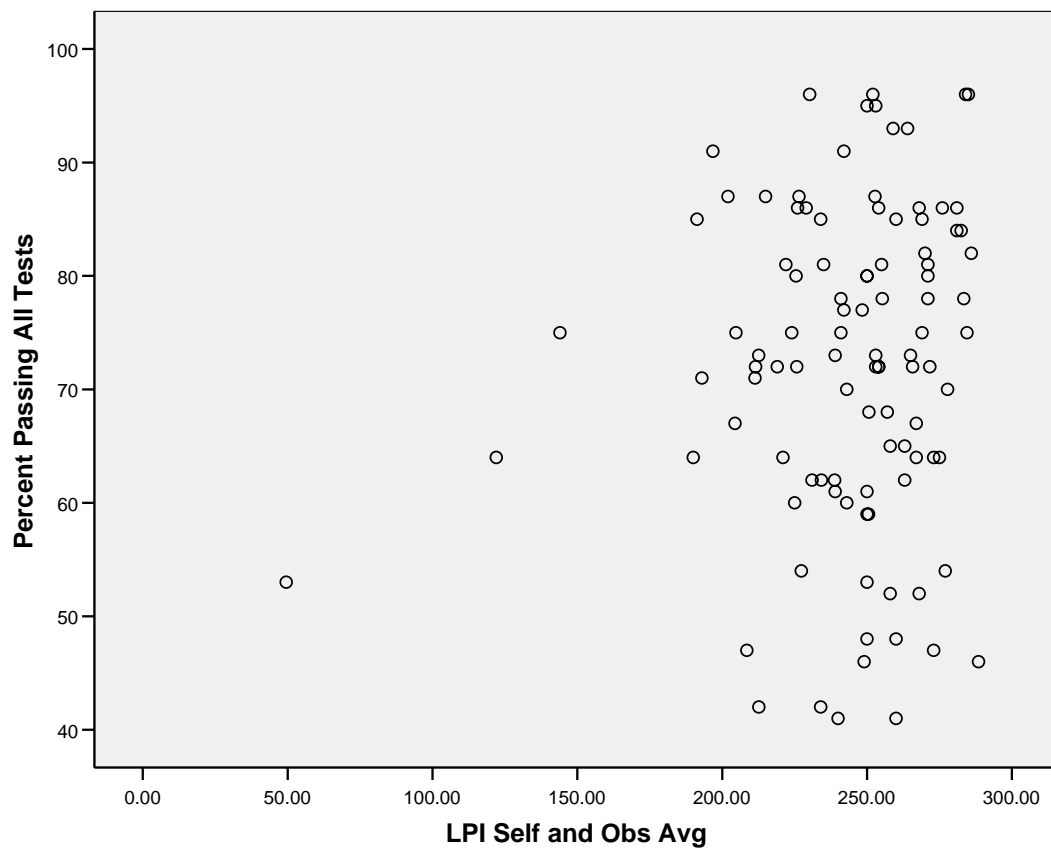


FIGURE 1. Scatterplot of Correlation between LPI Total Scores (Self and Observer Average) and Percent Passing all TAKS Tests

In order to determine if a linear relationship exists between a specific leadership practice and student achievement, correlations were run between each leadership practice measured by LPI and the student performance variable. As with the correlation between LPI total scores and TAKS scores, the observer scores for each school were averaged to create one observer score which was paired with the leader score for each campus. Student performance was again measured by the percentage of students passing all TAKS tests for each campus.

Leaders *Model the Way* by being clear about their beliefs, or values, and being an example of those beliefs through daily actions (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). Table 12 is an illustration of the correlation between LPI scores for the leadership practice *Model the Way* and student achievement as measured by the percent of all TAKS tests passed. The Pearson $r = .137$ and $r^2 = .02$. The effect size for this correlation coefficient is an indication of a small correlation with only 2% of the variance in one variable explained by the variance in the other variable. The significance value of .169 indicates that the correlation between LPI *Model the Way* scores and student achievement is not statistically significant. These two variables, therefore, are not linearly related.

TABLE 12. Correlation between LPI *Model the Way* Scores (Self and Observer Average) and Percent Passing all TAKS Tests

		Model the Way Self and Observer Avg.	Percent Passing All Tests
Model the Way Self and Observer Avg.	Pearson Correlation	1	.137
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.169
	N	102	102
Percent Passing All Tests	Pearson Correlation	.137	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.169	
	N	102	102

Sig. > .05 indicates no statistical significance

Figure 2 is a scatterplot depiction of the amount of linear relationship between *Model the Way* scores and student achievement. As with the correlation using total LPI scores, no clear regression line exists.

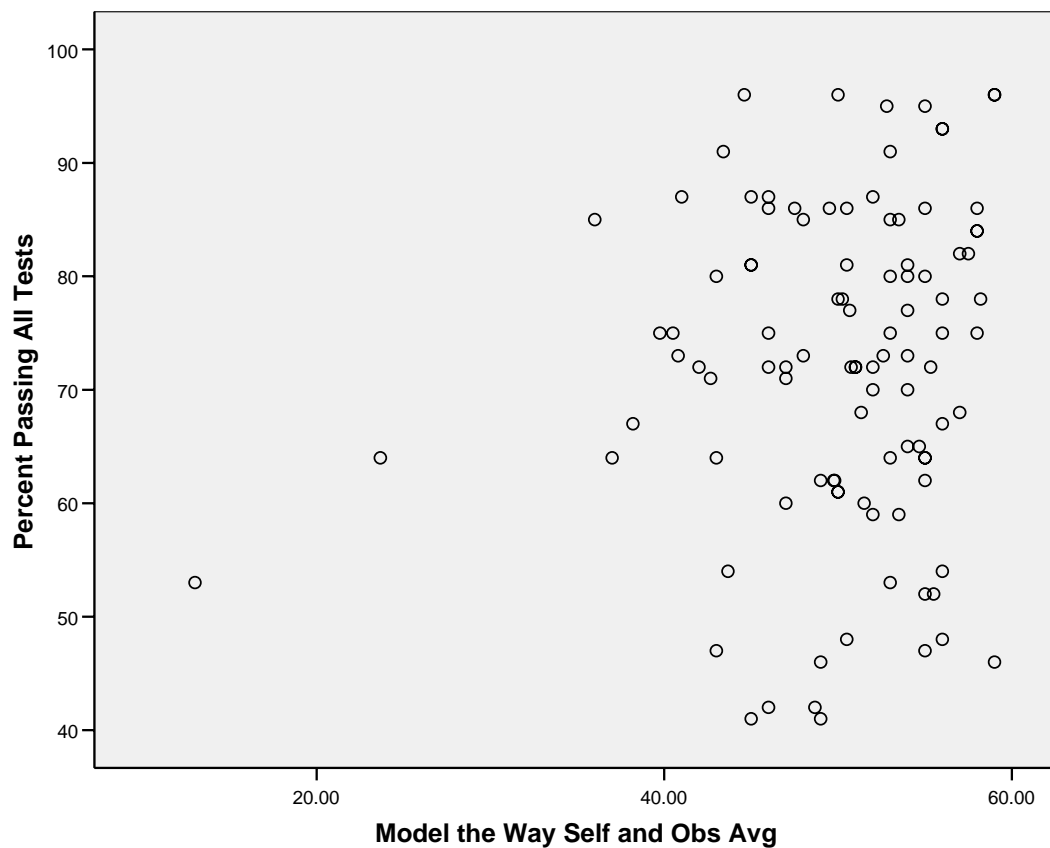


FIGURE 2. Scatterplot of Correlation between LPI *Model the Way* Scores (Self and Observer Average) and Percent Passing all TAKS Tests

Leaders have a vision for the future and enlist others in sharing that vision by knowing their constituents (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b). Table 13 is a reflection of the correlation between LPI scores for the leadership practice *Inspire a Shared Vision* and

student achievement as measured by the percent of students passing all TAKS tests taken. The correlation coefficient $r = .043$ is an indication of a very small correlation between these two variables, and the coefficient of determination $r^2 = .002$ indicates that less than 1% of the variance in one variable can be explained by knowledge of the variance in the other variable. The significance value .669 indicates no statistical significance in this correlation and no linear relationship between this practice and student achievement.

TABLE 13. Correlation between LPI *Inspire a Shared Vision* Scores (Self and Observer Average) and Percent Passing all TAKS Tests

		Inspire a Shared Vision Self and Observer Avg.	Percent Passing All Tests
Inspire a Shared Vision Self and Observer Avg.	Pearson Correlation	1	.043
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.669
	N	102	102
Percent Passing All Tests	Pearson Correlation	.043	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.669	
	N	102	102

Sig. > .05 indicates no statistical significance

The scatterplot in Figure 3 is a depiction of the amount of linear relationship between *Inspire a Shared Vision* scores and the percent of students passing all tests. A regression line is not clearly visible in the figure.

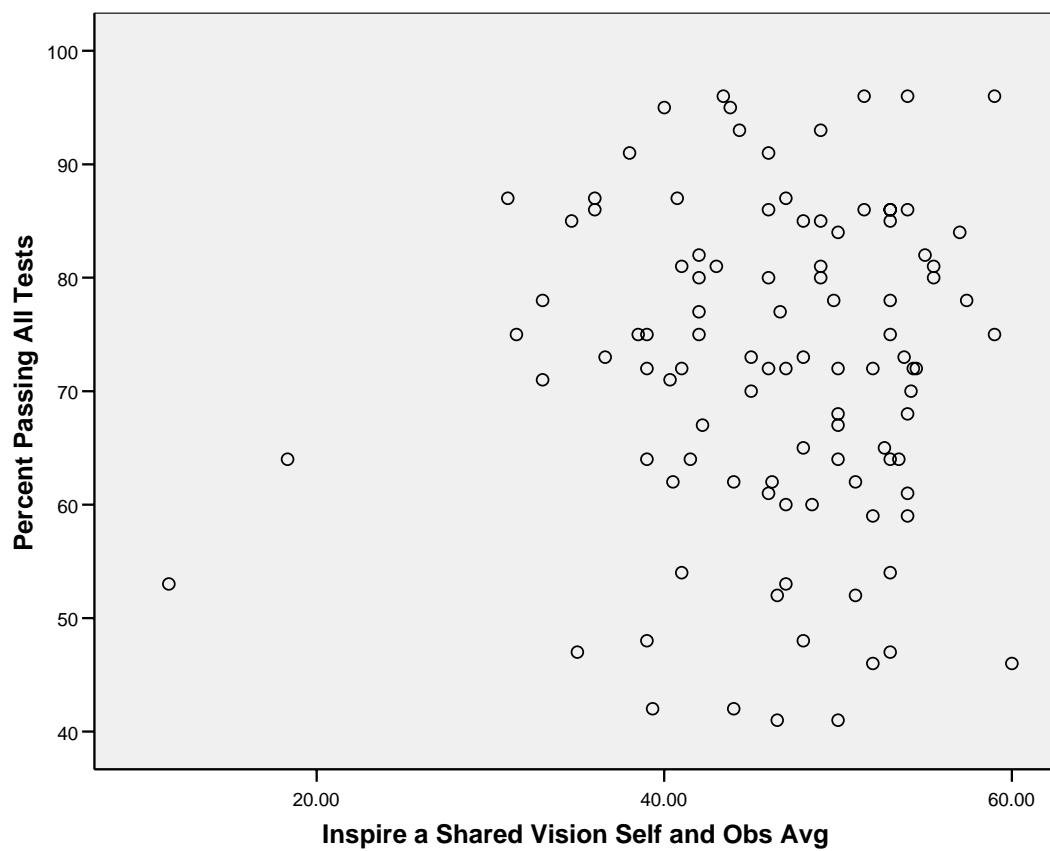


FIGURE 3. Scatterplot of Correlation between LPI *Inspire a Shared Vision* Scores (Self and Observer Average) and Percent Passing all TAKS Tests

Leaders *Challenge the Process* by searching for opportunities to innovate, grow, and improve and they are willing to experiment, take risks, and learn from their mistakes (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). Table 14 is an illustration of the correlation between LPI scores for the leadership practice *Challenge the Process* and student achievement as measured by the percent of all TAKS tests passed. The Pearson $r = .105$ is an indication of a small correlation between these two variables, and the coefficient of determination $r^2 = .01$ indicates that 1% of the variance in these two

variables is common variance. The significance value of .295 is an indication that the correlation between LPI *Challenge the Process* scores and student achievement is not statistically significant and the two variables are not linearly related.

TABLE 14. Correlation between LPI *Challenge the Process* Scores (Self and Observer Average) and Percent Passing all TAKS Tests

		Challenge the Process Self and Observer Avg.	Percent Passing All Tests
Challenge the Process Self and Observer Avg.	Pearson Correlation	1	.105
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.295
	N	102	102
Percent Passing All Tests	Pearson Correlation	.105	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.295	
	N	102	102

Sig. > .05 indicates no statistical significance

Figure 4 is an illustration of the correlation between the leadership practice of *Challenge the Process* and student achievement. No linear relationship between these two variables is evident in this scatterplot.

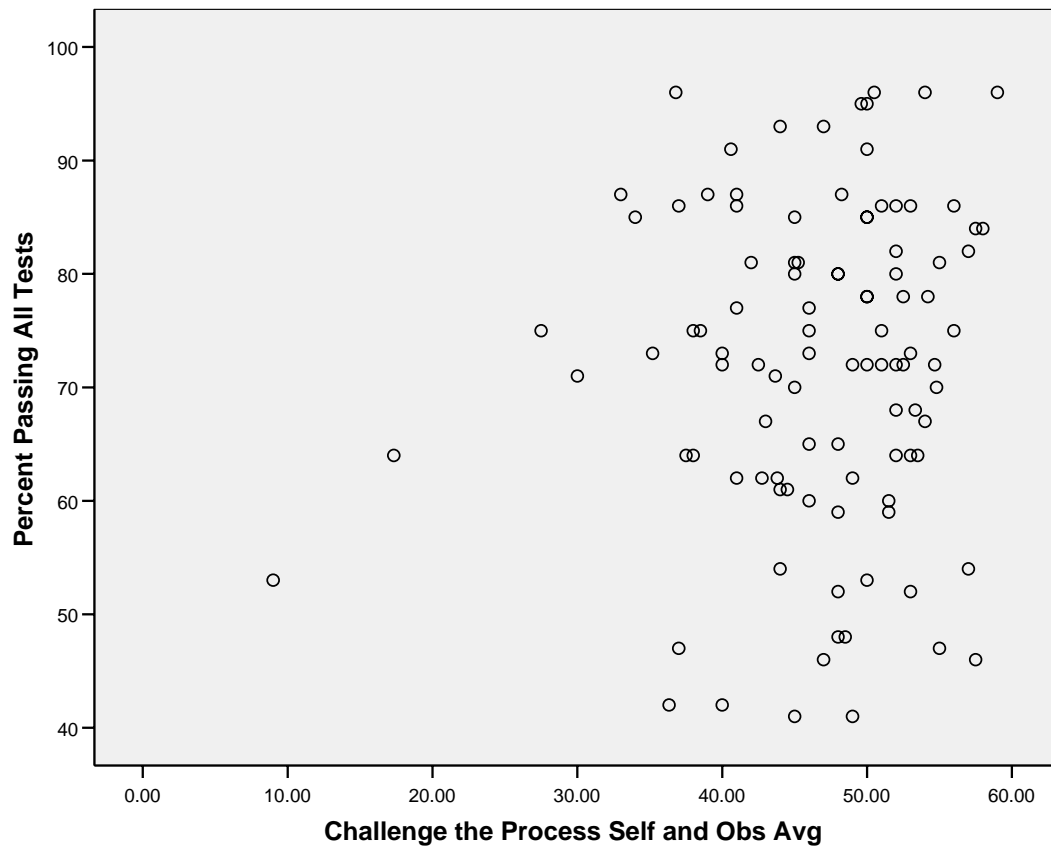


FIGURE 4. Scatterplot of Correlation between LPI *Challenge the Process* Scores (Self and Observer Average) and Percent Passing all TAKS Tests

The fourth leadership practice measured by the LPI was *Enable Others to Act*. In order to *Enable Others to Act*, leaders must foster collaboration, build trust, and strengthen others through training and empowerment (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). Table 15 is a depiction of the correlation between LPI scores for this leadership practice and student achievement as measured by the percent of students passing all TAKS tests taken. The Pearson $r = .141$, yielding a coefficient of determination of $r^2 = .02$ for this practice. This correlation coefficient is an indication of a small correlation

between these variables with only 2% of the variance in each variable explained by the other. The significance value of .159 indicates no statistical significance in the correlation and no linear relationship between these two variables.

TABLE 15. Correlation between LPI *Enable Others to Act* Scores (Self and Observer Average) and Percent Passing all TAKS Tests

		Enable Others to Act Self and Observer Avg.	Percent Passing All Tests
Enable Others to Act Self and Observer Avg.	Pearson Correlation	1	.141
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.159
	N	102	102
Percent Passing All Tests	Pearson Correlation	.141	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.159	
	N	102	102

Sig. > .05 indicates no statistical significance

The scatterplot in Figure 5 is a depiction of the amount of linear relationship between *Enable Others to Act* scores and the percent of students passing all tests. A regression line is not clearly visible in the figure.

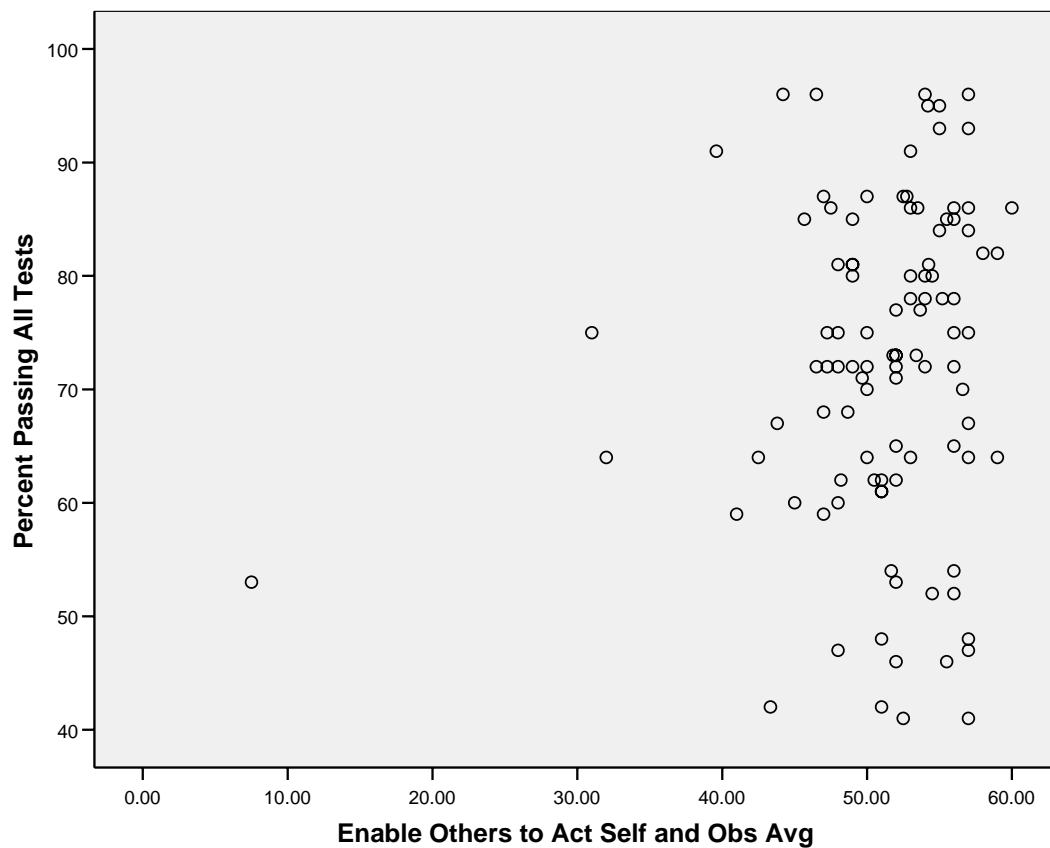


FIGURE 5. Scatterplot of Correlation between LPI *Enable Others to Act* Scores (Self and Observer Average) and Percent Passing all TAKS Tests

The final leadership practice to be statistically analyzed was *Encourage the Heart*. Caring is at the heart of leadership and leaders *Encourage the Heart* by recognizing and showing appreciation for people's contributions and creating a climate of celebration (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). Table 16 is a presentation of the correlation between LPI scores for this leadership practice and student achievement as measured by the percent of students passing all TAKS tests given. The Pearson $r = .107$ and $r^2 = .01$ for the practice *Encourage the Heart*. This correlation coefficient is an

indication of a small correlation with 1% of the variance being common variance. The significance value of .282 indicates no statistical significance in the correlation and no linear relationship between this practice and the student achievement variable.

TABLE 16. Correlation between LPI *Encourage the Heart* Scores (Self and Observer Average) and Percent Passing all TAKS Tests

		Encourage the Heart Self and Observer Avg.	Percent Passing All Tests
Encourage the Heart Self and Observer Avg.	Pearson Correlation	1	.107
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.282
	N	102	102
Percent Passing All Tests	Pearson Correlation	.107	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.282	
	N	102	102

Sig. > .05 indicates no statistical significance

The scatterplot in Figure 6 is a visual depiction of the amount of linear relationship between these two variables. Again, no line of regression is evident.

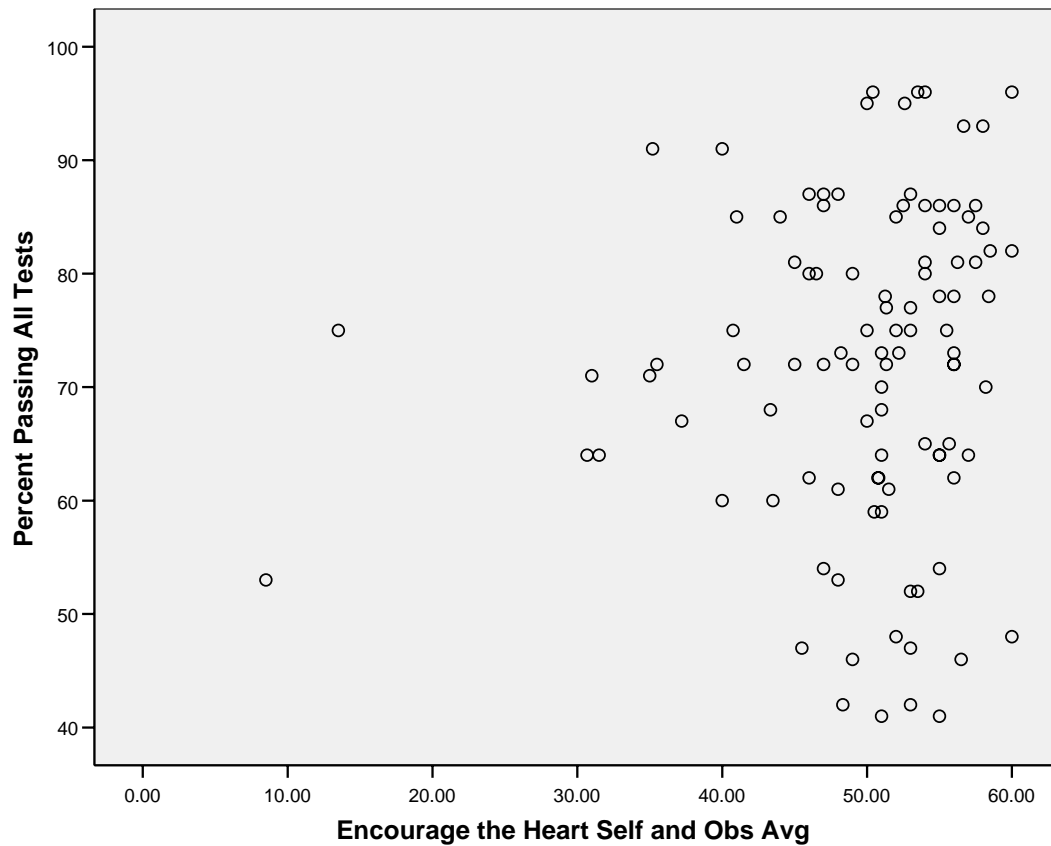


FIGURE 6. Scatterplot of Correlation between LPI *Encourage the Heart* Scores (Self and Observer Average) and Percent Passing all TAKS Tests

Analysis of Research Question #2

Are there differences in the responses of principals and selected SBDM committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in elementary schools in Region V ESC, Texas?

Participants were surveyed using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003). Principals responded to the LPI—Self instrument and selected SBDM committee members from each principal’s campus

responded to the LPI—Observer instrument. Participants responded to 30 statements designed to measure the five major leadership practices identified by Kouzes and Posner: *Model the Way*, *Inspire a Shared Vision*, *Challenge the Process*, *Enable Others to Act*, and *Encourage the Heart*. Each practice was measured by six statements rated on a 10-point Likert-type scale. Individuals rated with the LPI may receive a minimum score of 6 and a maximum score of 60 on each of the practices.

The mean and standard deviations for total LPI scores are shown in Table 17. Selected site-based decision making committee members, or observers, show a mean of 236.8496 with a standard deviation of 43.40498. Principals show a mean of 250.1176 and a standard deviation of 21.43609. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for total LPI scores as shown in Table 18 reveals an F of 3.831 and significance at .053.

TABLE 17. Comparative Statistics for Total LPI Scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Observer Averages	51	236.8496	43.40498
Principals	51	250.1176	21.43609
Total	102	243.4836	34.70726

TABLE 18. ANOVA Table for Total LPI Scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4489.042	1	4489.042	3.831	.053
Within Groups	117174.908	100	1171.749		
Total	121663.950	101			

Sig. = .05 indicates statistical significance

Table 19 contains the mean and standard deviations for the leadership practice *Model the Way*. For this practice, observers had a mean of 48.1192 and a standard deviation of 8.53211. Principals had a mean of 51.902 and a standard deviation of 4.45536. The analysis of variance shown in Table 20 shows an F of 7.877 and significance at .006, which is statistically significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 19. Comparative Statistics for the Leadership Practice *Model the Way*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Observer Averages	51	48.1192	8.53211
Principals	51	51.9020	4.45536
Total	102	50.0106	7.03403

TABLE 20. ANOVA Table for the Leadership Practice *Model the Way*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	364.884	1	364.884	7.877	.006
Within Groups	4632.356	100	46.324		
Total	4997.240	101			

Sig. < .05 indicates statistical significance

The means and standard deviations for the leadership practice *Inspire a Shared Vision* are shown in Table 21. Observers show a mean of 46.1522 and a standard deviation of 9.45111. Principals show a mean of 46.4706 with a standard deviation of 6.32883. The analysis of variance for this particular practice as shown in Table 22 reveals an F of .04 and significance at .842. There is no statistical significance at the .05 level.

TABLE 21. Comparative Statistics for the Leadership Practice *Inspire a Shared Vision*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Observer Averages	51	46.1522	9.45111
Principals	51	46.4706	6.32883
Total	102	46.3114	8.00462

TABLE 22. ANOVA Table for the Leadership Practice *Inspire a Shared Vision*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.586	1	2.586	.040	.842
Within Groups	6468.881	100	64.689		
Total	6471.467	101			

Sig. > .05 indicates no statistical significance

The means and standard deviations for the leadership practice *Challenge the Process* are shown in Table 23. Observers show a mean of 45.5604 and a standard deviation of 9.58286. Principals show a mean of 47.3922 with a standard deviation of 6.28674. The analysis of variance for this particular practice as shown in Table 24

reveals an F of 1.303 and significance at .256. Thus, no statistical significance at the .05 level is present.

TABLE 23. Comparative Statistics for the Leadership Practice *Challenge the Process*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Observer Averages	51	45.5604	9.58286
Principals	51	47.3922	6.28674
Total	102	46.4763	8.11628

TABLE 24. ANOVA Table for the Leadership Practice *Challenge the Process*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	85.562	1	85.562	1.303	.256
Within Groups	6567.713	100	65.677		
Total	6653.275	101			

Sig. > .05 indicates no statistical significance

Table 25 contains the means and standard deviations for the leadership practice *Enable Others to Act*. For this practice, observers had a mean of 49.1702 and a standard deviation of 8.27741. Principals had a mean of 52.9608 and a standard deviation of 3.72. The analysis of variance shown in Table 26 reveals an F of 8.898 and significance at .004. This significance at the .05 level is statistically significant.

TABLE 25. Comparative Statistics for the Leadership Practice *Enable Others to Act*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Observer Averages	51	49.1702	8.27741
Principals	51	52.9608	3.72000
Total	102	51.0655	6.66311

TABLE 26. ANOVA Table for the Leadership Practice *Enable Others to Act*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	366.398	1	366.398	8.898	.004
Within Groups	4117.698	100	41.177		
Total	4484.096	101			

Sig. < .05 indicates statistical significance

The analysis of the final leadership practice, *Encourage the Heart*, is illustrated in Table 27. Observers show a mean of 47.8535 and a standard deviation of 10.43619. Principals show a mean of 51.3922 and a standard deviation of 5.56805. Table 28 shows the analysis of variance for this practice revealing an F of 4.564 with significance at .035, which is statistically significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 27. Comparative Statistics for the Leadership Practice *Encourage the Heart*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Observer Averages	51	47.8535	10.43619
Principals	51	51.3922	5.56805
Total	102	49.6228	8.51043

TABLE 28. ANOVA Table for the Leadership Practice *Encourage the Heart*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	319.308	1	319.308	4.564	.035
Within Groups	6995.855	100	69.959		
Total	7315.163	101			

Sig. < .05 indicates statistical significance

Table 29 provides a comparison of the means for principal self-scores, observer averages, and Kouzes and Posner's (2002a) norms for each of the five leadership practices in rank order. Of particular note was that all groups ranked *Enable Others to Act* as the leadership practice with the most usage followed by the practice *Model the Way*. The Region V elementary principals and their observers reported slightly greater usage than the norms established by Kouzes and Posner of all five leadership practices. Region V principals and the norming groups (leaders and observers) ranked *Inspire a Shared Vision* as the least frequently used practice. While Region V observers ranked *Inspire a Shared Vision* fourth and *Challenge the Process* last, the mean difference between the two practices was only .6, meaning both practices were viewed by observers as having the about same frequency in use.

TABLE 29. Leadership Practices Rankings of Region V Elementary Principals Versus Norms Established by Research of Kouzes and Posner from Highest Usage to Least Usage

Principal Mean Score Rankings	Kouzes and Posner Research Norms – Self Rankings	Observer Mean Score Rankings	Kouzes and Posner Research Norms – Observer Rankings
Enable Others to Act (52.96)	Enable Others to Act (48.7)	Enable Others to Act (49.2)	Enable Others to Act (47.8)
Model the Way (51.9)	Model the Way (47.0)	Model the Way (48.1)	Model the Way (47.5)
Encourage the Heart (51.4)	Challenge the Process (43.9)	Encourage the Heart (47.9)	Encourage the Heart (44.9)
Challenge the Process (47.4)	Encourage the Heart (43.8)	Inspire a Shared Vision (46.2)	Challenge the Process (44.4)
Inspire a Shared Vision (46.5)	Inspire a Shared Vision (40.6)	Challenge the Process (45.6)	Inspire a Shared Vision (42.0)

*The number in parenthesis indicates the mean of the reported usage on a scale of 6 to 60 for each leadership practice measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory

Table 30 is a depiction of the percentile rankings established by Kouzes and Posner (2003b) for each of the five leadership practices: model the way, challenge the process, inspire a shared vision, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart. Scores in the 70th percentile and above are considered high scores, scores from the 30th percentile to the 69th percentile are considered moderate scores, and scores below the 30th percentile are considered low scores.

TABLE 30. Leadership Practices Inventory Percentile Rankings for Practice Scores

	$\geq 70^{\text{th}}$ percentile (High Range)	30^{th} - 69^{th} percentile (Moderate Range)	$< 30^{\text{th}}$ percentile (Low Range)
Model the Way	51 - 60	44 - 50	22 - 43
Inspire a Shared Vision	50 - 60	40 - 49	18 - 39
Challenge the Process	50 - 60	43 - 49	24 - 42
Enable Others to Act	53 - 60	47 - 52	24 - 46
Encourage the Heart	52 - 60	43 - 51	22 - 42

The comparison of the percentile ranking of each principal based on the results of the LPI-Self instrument to the percentile ranking they received based the average of the their observer scores is illustrated in Tables 31, 32, 33, 34, and 35. The percentages on the descending diagonal represent agreement between the principal and observer scores in that the principal's self score fell within the same percentile range as the average of their observers' scores. Percentages below the diagonal represent campuses where the principal's self percentile was in a lower range than the score received from observers and percentages above the diagonal represent campuses where the principal's self percentile was in a higher range than the score received from his or her observers. For the leadership practice *Model the Way*, 45.10% (n=23) of principals scored themselves in the same percentile range as their observers, 13.72% (n=7) of principals scored themselves in a lower range than their observers, and 41.18% (n=21) scored themselves in a higher range than their observers (Table 31).

TABLE 31. Comparison of Percentile Ranges for Self and Observer Average Scores for Leadership Practice *Model the Way*

Self Percentile Range	Observer Average Percentile Range		
	$\geq 70^{\text{th}}$ percentile	$30^{\text{th}}\text{-}69^{\text{th}}$ percentile	$< 30^{\text{th}}$ percentile
$\geq 70^{\text{th}}$ percentile	27.45%	19.61%	17.65%
$30^{\text{th}}\text{-}69^{\text{th}}$ percentile	11.76%	15.69%	3.92%
$< 30^{\text{th}}$ percentile	1.96%	0.00%	1.96%

In examining the leadership practice *Inspire a Shared Vision*, 39.22% (n=20) of principals' self scores fell into the same percentile range as the average of their observers' scores, 29.41% (n=15) fell into a lower range than their observers, and 31.37% (n=16) were in a higher range than the scores received from their observers (Table 32).

TABLE 32. Comparison of Percentile Ranges for Self and Observer Average Scores for Leadership Practice *Inspire a Shared Vision*

Self Percentile Range	Observer Average Percentile Range		
	$\geq 70^{\text{th}}$ percentile	$30^{\text{th}}\text{-}69^{\text{th}}$ percentile	$< 30^{\text{th}}$ percentile
$\geq 70^{\text{th}}$ percentile	17.65%	17.65%	5.88%
$30^{\text{th}}\text{-}69^{\text{th}}$ percentile	15.69%	17.65%	7.84%
$< 30^{\text{th}}$ percentile	3.92%	9.8%	3.92%

For the leadership practice *Challenge the Process*, 39.22% (n=20) of principals scored themselves in the same percentile range as their observers and 29.41% (n=15) scored themselves in a lower range than their observers. Consequently, 31.37%

(n=16) of principals' self-scores fell in a higher percentile range than the scores received from their observers (Table 33).

TABLE 33. Comparison of Percentile Ranges for Self and Observer Average Scores for Leadership Practice *Challenge the Process*

Self Percentile Range	Observer Average Percentile Range		
	≥ 70 th percentile	30 th -69 th percentile	< 30 th percentile
≥ 70 th percentile	17.65%	11.76%	15.69%
30 th -69 th percentile	11.76%	15.69%	3.92%
< 30 th percentile	9.80%	7.84%	5.88%

As evidenced in Table 34, 47.40% (n=24) of principals scored themselves in the same percentile range as their observers, 17.65% (n=9) of principals scored themselves in a lower range than their observers, and 35.29% (n=18) scored themselves in a higher range than their observers scored them on the leadership practice *Enable Others to Act*.

TABLE 34. Comparison of Percentile Ranges for Self and Observer Average Scores for Leadership Practice *Enable Others to Act*

Self Percentile Range	Observer Average Percentile Range		
	≥ 70 th percentile	30 th -69 th percentile	< 30 th percentile
≥ 70 th percentile	23.52%	17.65%	9.80%
30 th -69 th percentile	15.69%	23.52%	7.84%
< 30 th percentile	0.00%	1.96%	0.00%

Table 35 is an exhibition of the comparison for the practice *Encourage the Heart* in which 41.17% (n=21) of principals' scores and the average of their observers' scores were in the same percentile range, 21.57% (n=11) of principals scored themselves in a lower range than their observers, and 37.25% (n=19) had self scores that were in a higher range than scores received from their observers.

TABLE 35. Comparison of Percentile Ranges for Self and Observer Average Scores for Leadership Practice *Encourage the Heart*

Self Percentile Range	Observer Average Percentile Range		
	$\geq 70^{\text{th}}$ percentile	$30^{\text{th}}\text{-}69^{\text{th}}$ percentile	$< 30^{\text{th}}$ percentile
$\geq 70^{\text{th}}$ percentile	23.52%	19.61%	9.80%
$30^{\text{th}}\text{-}69^{\text{th}}$ percentile	19.61%	13.73%	7.84%
$< 30^{\text{th}}$ percentile	0.00%	1.96%	3.92%

The researcher-developed questionnaire also asked each elementary principal for a general performance self rating of above average, average, or below average. Observers were asked to rate their principal's performance using the same scale. The majority of principals were considered by observers (69%) and themselves (72.5%) to be above average in performance. The remaining 27.5% of principals rated their performance as average. Principals received a performance rating of average from 26.5% of observers, while 4.5% of observers rated their principal's performance as below average (Table 36).

TABLE 36. General Principal Performance Rating

Rating	Principals (n=51)	Observers (n=155)
Above Average	72.5%	69.0%
Average	27.5%	26.5%
Below Average	0%	4.5%

Table 37 is an illustration of the overall percentile ranking of Region V principals based on the LPI-Self total scores and the average of LPI-Observer total scores for each principal. In comparison, the subjective performance ratings of principals based on their responses and their observers' responses on the researcher developed questionnaire were higher than percentile rankings based on responses to the LPI instruments.

TABLE 37. Leadership Practices Inventory Percentile Rankings of Region V Principals

Rating	Principals (n=51)	Observer Average (n=51)
High Score	41.2%	33.3%
Moderate Score	52.9%	41.2%
Low Score	5.9%	25.5%

Analysis of Research Question #3

Do selected demographic variables impact responses of principals and selected SBDM committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in elementary schools in Region V ESC, Texas?

Demographic information was gathered from respondents through a researcher-developed questionnaire that was included with the LPI-Self and Observer

instruments sent to principals and site-based decision making committee members. Participants were asked to reveal their gender, ethnicity, age group, and years of experience in education. Respondents were from three ethnicity groups: African American, Hispanic, and White. Age was grouped into four categories: 20-30 years, 31-40 years, 41-50 years, and over 50 years. Similarly, experience was divided into the categories of 0 - 10 years, 11 - 20 years, 21 - 30 years, or 31 or more years.

The total scores on the LPI instrument and demographic information for each participant, principals and observers, were analyzed with the SPSS statistical software package. Table 38 is an illustration of the mean and standard error of total LPI scores for all principals and observers by gender. Male respondents ($n = 23$) had a mean score of 250.703 with a standard error of 11.697. Female respondents ($n = 183$) had a mean score of 246.165 and a standard error of 6.099.

TABLE 38. Estimated Marginal Means of LPI Total Scores by Respondent Gender

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Error
Male	23	250.703	11.697
Female	183	246.165	6.099

Table 39 is an illustration of the comparisons of the total LPI scores of all respondents by gender. The mean difference is relatively small (4.538) with significance at .731, which indicates no statistical significance at the .05 level.

TABLE 39. Pairwise Comparisons of LPI Total Scores by Respondent Gender

(I) Gender	(J) Gender	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.(a)
Female	Male	-4.538(b,c)	13.192	.731
Male	Female	4.538(b,c)	13.192	.731

Sig. > .05 indicates no statistical significance

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

b. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (I).

c. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (J).

Table 40 is an exhibit of the mean and standard error of the total LPI scores for all principals and observers by ethnicity. White respondents (n = 176) had a mean score of 243.813 with a standard error of 6.127. African American respondents (n = 25) had a mean score of 259.972 with a standard error of 11.043. Hispanic respondents (n = 5) had a mean score of 224.778 and a standard error of 23.010.

TABLE 40. Estimated Marginal Means for LPI Total Scores by Respondent Ethnicity

Ethnicity	N	Mean	Std. Error
White	176	243.813	6.127
African American	25	259.972	11.043
Hispanic	5	224.778	23.010

Table 41 is an illustration of the pairwise comparisons of the total LPI scores of all respondents by ethnicity. The mean difference between scores of white and African American respondents was 16.159 while the mean difference between scores

of white and Hispanic respondents was 19.035. The largest difference occurred between the means of the scores of African American and Hispanic respondents with a difference of 35.194. The significance levels of the comparisons were .202, .425, and .170 respectively, all of which are above the .05 level indicating no statistical significance in the differences.

TABLE 41. Pairwise Comparisons of LPI Total Scores and Respondent Ethnicity

(I) Ethnicity	(J) Ethnicity	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.(a)
White	African American	-16.159(b,c)	12.629	.202
	Hispanic	19.035(b,c)	23.811	.425
African American	White	16.159(b,c)	12.629	.202
	Hispanic	35.194(b,c)	25.522	.170
Hispanic	White	-19.035(b,c)	23.811	.425
	African American	-35.194(b,c)	25.522	.170

Sig. > .05 indicates no statistical significance

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

b. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (I).

c. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (J).

Table 42 is an illustration of the mean and standard error of LPI total scores for all principals and observers by age group. Respondents 20 – 30 years of age (n = 16) had a mean score of 220.233 with a standard error of 23.336. Those 31 – 40 years of age (n = 52) had a mean score of 244.855 and a standard error of 11.668. Those in the age group 41 – 50 years (n = 69) had a mean score of 249.368 and a standard error of 10.254. Finally, the age group of 51 years or older (n = 69) had a mean score of 251.887 with a standard error of 8.539.

TABLE 42. Estimated Marginal Means of LPI Total Scores by Respondent's Age

Age Group	N	Mean	Std. Error
20 – 30 Years	16	220.233	23.336
31 – 40 Years	52	244.855	11.668
41 – 50 Years	69	249.368	10.254
51 + Years	69	251.887	8.539

Table 43 is an illustration of the comparisons of the total LPI scores of all respondents by age group. The smallest mean difference (2.519) existed between those 41-50 years and age and those over 50 years of age while the greatest difference (31.654) existed between the means of the scores of those in the youngest group (20-30 years of age) and the oldest (over 50 years of age). All of the significance values are greater than .05 indicating no statistical significance in the differences of the mean scores for each age group.

TABLE 43. Pairwise Comparisons of LPI Total Scores by Respondent's Age

(I) Age Group	(J) Age Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.(a)
20 - 30 years of age	31 - 40 years of age	-24.621(b,c)	26.090	.347
	41 - 50 years of age	-29.135(b,c)	25.489	.255
	51 or older	-31.654(b,c)	24.849	.204
31 - 40 years of age	20 - 30 years of age	24.621(b,c)	26.090	.347
	41 - 50 years of age	-4.513(b,c)	15.533	.772
	51 or older	-7.032(b,c)	14.459	.627

TABLE 43. Continued

(I) Age Group	(J) Age Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.(a)
41 - 50 years of age	20 - 30 years of age	29.135(b,c)	25.489	.255
	31 - 40 years of age	4.513(b,c)	15.533	.772
	51 or older	-2.519(b,c)	13.344	.850
51 or older	20 - 30 years of age	31.654(b,c)	24.849	.204
	31 - 40 years of age	7.032(b,c)	14.459	.627
	41 - 50 years of age	2.519(b,c)	13.344	.850

Sig. > .05 indicates no statistical significance

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

b. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (I).

c. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (J).

Table 44 is a display of the mean and standard error of LPI total scores for all respondents by years of experience. Respondents with 0 – 10 years of experience (n = 45) had a mean score of 244.540 with a standard error of 12.461. Those with 11 – 20 years of experience (n = 80) had a mean score of 238.679 with a standard error of 9.065. Those in education for 21 – 30 years (n = 53) had a mean score of 258.258 and a standard error of 11.513. Respondents with 31 – 40 years of experience (n = 23) had a mean score of 257.267 with a standard error of 15.016. Finally, those with 41 or more years of educational experience (n = 5) had a mean score of 252.000 and a standard error of 20.626.

TABLE 44. Estimated Marginal Means of LPI Total Scores by Respondent's Years of Experience

Experience	N	Mean	Std. Error
0 – 10 Years	45	244.540	12.461
11 – 20 Years	80	238.679	9.065
21 – 30 Years	53	258.258	11.513
31 – 40 Years	23	257.267	15.016
41 or more Years	5	252.000	20.626

Table 45 is an illustration of the comparisons of the total LPI scores of respondents by years of experience. The smallest mean difference (.991) was found between the responses of those with 21-30 years of experience and those with 31-40 years of experience in education. The greatest mean difference (19.579) was found between the group with 11-20 year of experience and the group with 21-30 years of experience. All of the significance levels are greater than .05, showing no statistical significance in the mean differences.

TABLE 45. Pairwise Comparisons of LPI Total Scores by Respondent's Years of Experience

(I) Experience	(J) Experience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (a)
0 - 10 Years	11 - 20 Years	5.860(b,c)	15.410	.704
	21 - 30 Years	-13.718(b,c)	16.966	.420
	31 - 40 Years	-12.727(b,c)	19.513	.515
	41 or More Years	-7.460(b,c)	24.098	.757
11 - 20 Years	0 - 10 Years	-5.860(b,c)	15.410	.704
	21 - 30 Years	-19.579(b,c)	14.654	.183
	31 - 40 Years	-18.587(b,c)	17.540	.291
	41 or More Years	-13.321(b,c)	22.530	.555
21 - 30 Years	0 - 10 Years	13.718(b,c)	16.966	.420
	11 - 20 Years	19.579(b,c)	14.654	.183
	31 - 40 Years	.991(b,c)	18.922	.958
	41 or More Years	6.258(b,c)	23.622	.791

TABLE 45. Continued

(I) Experience	(J) Experience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (a)
31 - 40 Years	0 - 10 Years	12.727(b,c)	19.513	.515
	11 - 20 Years	18.587(b,c)	17.540	.291
	21 - 30 Years	-.991(b,c)	18.922	.958
	41 or More Years	5.267(b,c)	25.513	.837
41 or More Years	0 - 10 Years	7.460(b,c)	24.098	.757
	11 - 20 Years	13.321(b,c)	22.530	.555
	21 - 30 Years	-6.258(b,c)	23.622	.791
	31 - 40 Years	-5.267(b,c)	25.513	.837

Sig. > .05 indicates no statistical significance

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

b. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (I).

c. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (J).

Summary

This study involved the analysis of data from the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) Self and Observer instruments, a researcher-generated demographic questionnaire, and accountability information from Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) reports for the 51 participating Region V schools. There were 206 surveys used in the study, which tested three research questions.

The first research question was an examination of the relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by elementary principals and selected site-based decision making (SBDM) committee members. The perceived leadership practices were measured through the administration of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) surveys to the principals and observers. Student performance data were obtained from Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS)

reports for each participating campus. The overall indication is that no strong correlation exists between perceived leadership practices as measured by the LPI and student academic performance as measured by the percentage of students passing all Texas Academic Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) tests.

The second research question was an examination of the possible differences in the responses of principals and selected observers regarding perceived leadership practices. The study revealed that principals scored themselves higher as a group on the LPI-Self instrument than their observers scored them on the LPI-Observer instrument. This trend was consistent throughout all five leadership practices measured by the LPI. The difference in the principals' total self-scores and the average of their observers' total scores was statistically significant as were the differences in the principals' self-scores and their observers' scores for the practices *Model the Way*, *Enable Others to Act*, and *Encourage the Heart*. The differences, however, in the principals' self scores and observer scores for the practices *Inspire a Shared Vision* and *Challenge the Process* were not statistically significant. Respondents were asked to rate the overall performance of principals in the researcher-developed questionnaire included with the LPI survey instruments. Principals and observers subjectively rated the Region V principals' performance higher in comparison to their overall percentile rankings of the LPI total scores.

The third and final research question was an exploration of whether selected demographic variables impacted the responses of principals and their observers with regard to perceived leadership practices. Demographic information was obtained from responses to the researcher-developed questionnaire included with the LPI surveys.

The demographic variables examined were gender, ethnicity, age group, and years of experience in the field of education. The overall indication was that there was no statistical significance in the differences between LPI responses among the various demographic groups.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by principals and selected site-based decision making (SBDM) committee members of elementary schools in Region V Education Service Center (ESC), Texas. The study compared the perceptions of elementary principals and selected SBDM committee members regarding leadership practices and determined if selected demographic variables had an impact on the perceived leadership practices of the two identified groups.

A review of the literature was conducted to obtain an in-depth look at leadership in general, school leadership, and more specifically, leadership as it relates to the elementary principal. The review examined traits of successful leaders as well as implications for school leaders brought about by federal and state accountability systems that measure school performance and student success.

Three questions were posed to investigate the research. They were:

1. Is there a relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by principals and selected SBDM committee members of elementary schools in Region V ESC, Texas, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003)?

2. Are there differences in the responses of principals and selected SBDM committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in elementary schools in Region V ESC, Texas?
3. Do selected demographic variables impact responses of principals and selected SBDM committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in elementary schools in Region V ESC, Texas?

Summary of Findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations

A review of the literature, as well as an analysis of the data collected by this researcher form the basis for the review of the findings and conclusions for each research question presented in this section.

1. Is there a relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by principals and selected SBDM committee members of elementary schools in Region V ESC, Texas, as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003)?

The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) instrument developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003) was used to investigate this research question. The LPI-Self version (Appendix A) was administered to participating elementary school principals and the LPI-Observer version (Appendix B) was administered to participating site-based decision making committee members.

The frequency rating for each of the 30 behavior statements on the individual LPI surveys were tabulated to determine LPI scores for each of the five leadership practices measured by the LPI survey as well as a total LPI score. The individual

observer scores from each participating campus were combined to create an average observer score for each elementary principal. The resulting leader scores and observer average scores for each of the five leadership practices and the total instrument were used in statistical tests.

Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) reports for each participating campus were examined to determine 2005 Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) passing rates and campus ratings. The percent of students passing all TAKS tests for the campus was chosen to represent the student achievement variable. Correlations between LPI scores and the student achievement variable were run using the SPSS statistical software package to determine if a linear relationship exists between perceived leadership practices and student achievement.

The correlation between perceived leadership practices of elementary principals as measured by total LPI scores for all respondents and student performance as measured by the percent of students passing all TAKS tests revealed that a linear relationship does not exist between these two variables. A Pearson correlation coefficient of $r = .121$ indicates a small correlation and a coefficient of determination of $r^2 = .01$ leads to the conclusion that only 1% of the student achievement variable can be determined by knowledge of perceived leadership practices of elementary principals.

Similarly, correlations were run between the scores for each of the five practices measured by LPI and the student achievement variable. The Pearson correlation coefficients for the individual practices ranged from $r = .141$ to $r = .043$ and the effect size associated with these coefficients indicate small correlations between the two

variables. The coefficient of determination for each practice ranged from $r^2 = .02$ to $r^2 = .002$ indicating that no more than 2% of student achievement can be determined by a specific leadership practice. Again, tests revealed that no linear relationship exists between the five leadership practices measured by LPI and the student achievement variable. Spatz (2001) noted that low correlations do not always mean that no relationship exists between two variables as underlying variables may cause the relationship to be non-linear. He also cautions that high correlation coefficients do not provide the evidence necessary to make cause-and-effect statements as, “A sizable correlation is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for establishing causality” (p. 97).

Though the data used in this study did not reveal a direct relationship between perceived leadership practices of elementary principals and student achievement, the review of the literature suggests that a relationship does exist. Two key studies examining the effects of leadership practices on student achievement are the meta-analysis conducted by Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) and a review of the research conducted by Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2004).

Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003), in association with Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning (McREL) conducted a meta-analysis of studies conducted over a 30-year period through which they identified 21 leadership responsibilities that are “significantly associated with student achievement” (p. 2). In their correlation between leadership and student achievement, they found an average effect size of .25. Their findings also indicate that a principal’s improvement in

demonstrated ability of all 21 leadership responsibilities by one standard deviation would result in a mean student achievement gain of 10 percentile points.

In a study commissioned by the Wallace Foundation, Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2004) concluded that “successful leadership can play a highly significant—and frequently underestimated—role in improving student learning” (p. 5). They claim that the total of effects of leadership on student learning, both direct and indirect, account for about a quarter of the variation in student achievement, second only to classroom instruction that accounts for approximately one-third of the variation in student achievement. They identified three sets of practices that make up the basic core of successful leadership; setting directions, developing people, and redesigning the organization. Setting directions includes the practices of “identifying and articulating a vision, fostering the acceptance of group goals and creating high performance standards” (p. 8). “Offering intellectual stimulation, providing individualized support and providing appropriate models of best practice and beliefs” (p. 9) are key practices in developing people. In order to redesign the organization, the leader must strengthen school cultures, build collaborative processes, and modify organizational structures (p. 9).

When comparing the leadership responsibilities and practice statements of Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (pp. 9-12), the leadership practice sets identified by Leithwood and others (2004), and the 30 behavior statements for the five leadership practices identified by Kouzes and Posner (2003), many similarities are evident. This researcher concludes that the research supports an identified set of practices that have direct and indirect impact on student learning. The key is understanding which

practices are appropriate for a given situation, knowing which practices are areas of strength or weakness, and improving skills associated with identified practices.

Further review of the literature indicates several authors agree that the principal is key in promoting instructional improvement through the establishment of a strong school climate conducive of a positive learning environment (Gullatt & Lofton, 1996; Heck, Larsen, & Marcoulides, 1990; Lashway, 2003b). The principal must have an understanding of curriculum and good teaching practices (Gullatt & Lofton, 1996; Lashway, 2002; Leithwood & Steinbach, 1995) and must be perceived to be a strong instructional leader by teachers in order to positively impact student achievement (Andrews & Soder, 1987). Curriculum and instruction is what makes the school a unique organization and the focus of energy, compassion, and commitment on the instructional program is what makes the principalship different from other types of organizational leadership (Wilmore, 2002).

Leadership is a relationship and, as with any successful organization, the establishment of positive relationships with all stakeholders is the heart of successful school leadership (Hoy & Miskel, 2001; Kojimoto, 1987; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Lezotte & McKee, 2006; Sergiovanni, 1996; Yukl, 2002). It is through relationships with teachers, students, parents, and community members that principals are able to forge common goals and the common vision necessary face the pressures of societal changes and meet the increasing demands on educators and school systems brought about by the standards and accountability movements.

2. Are there differences in the responses of principals and selected SBDM committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in elementary schools in Region V ESC, Texas?

Participating principals and site-based decision making (SBDM) committee members were surveyed using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003). Principals responded to the LPI-Self version (Appendix A) and SBDM committee members responded to the LPI-Observer version (Appendix B). Each version of the instrument measures five specific leadership practices with six statements for each practice. Both versions use a 10-point Likert-type scale for each question yielding a maximum score of 60 for each individual practice and a maximum score of 300 on the complete instrument.

The LPI scores for each principal and the average of the observer scores for each principal were analyzed in terms of mean and standard deviation for total LPI scores as well as each separate leadership practice. Comparative statistics for total LPI scores revealed an observer mean of 236.8496 with a standard deviation of 43.40498. The principals had a mean of 250.1176 with a standard deviation of 21.43609. The data indicated that overall principals rated themselves higher than their observers rated them. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) between principal and observer scores indicated statistical significance at the .05 level.

When examining the five leadership practices independently, data indicated that principals rated themselves slightly higher than their observers rated them on three practices: *Model the Way*, *Enable Others to Act*, and *Encourage the Heart*. For the practice *Model the Way*, principals showed a mean score of 51.902 with a standard

deviation of 4.45536 while the observers' mean score was 48.1192 with a standard deviation of 8.53211.

For the practice *Enable Others to Act* principals had a mean score of 52.9608 with a standard deviation of 3.720 and the mean score of the observers was 49.1702 with a standard deviation of 8.27741. The mean of the principal scores for *Encourage the Heart* was 51.3922 with a standard deviation of 5.56805 and the mean of the observer scores for this practice was 47.8535 with a standard deviation of 10.43619. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for these three practices revealed statistical significance at the .05 level.

For the practice *Inspire a Shared Vision*, however, the mean of the principal scores was 46.4706 with a standard deviation of 6.32883 and the mean of the observer scores was 46.1522 with a standard deviation of 9.45111. Similarly, the mean of the principal scores for *Challenge the Process* was 47.3922 with a standard deviation of 6.28674 and the mean of the observer scores was 45.5604 with a standard deviation of 9.58286. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for these two practices revealed no statistical significance at the .05 level.

It is interesting to note that the leadership practice with the highest means for both principals and observers was *Enable Others to Act*. Kouzes and Posner (2003) posited that exemplary leaders foster collaboration and share their power with others. The magnitude of the elementary principal's job requires collaboration with stakeholders, the delegation of responsibilities, and the sharing of authority with teachers. Involving teachers, encouraging participation in all aspects of the education process,

and developing trusting relationships that promote and develop leadership potential of teachers are characteristics of effective principals (Blase, 1987; Eisner, 2002).

Both principals and observers agreed that the second most frequently used practice was *Model the Way* and third was the practice *Encourage the Heart*. It is natural for the successful elementary principal to *Encourage the Heart* due to the celebratory nature of the elementary school where individual and school-wide successes, no matter how great or small, are recognized on a daily basis. These celebrations are necessary in creating a collaborative culture in the school that fosters a sense of connectedness and a feeling of making a difference (DuFour, 2004). Students and teachers expect principals to have a visible presence in the school. (Kojimoto, 1987; Mortimore & Sammons, 1987). As a visible presence, the principal is in a position to model the values and the vision of the school (Smith & Andrews, 1989).

The practice *Inspire a Shared Vision* had the lowest mean for the principal self-ratings, while *Challenge the Process* had the lowest mean for the observer ratings of the principals. Conversely, *Challenge the Process* had the next to lowest mean for principal self-ratings and *Inspire a Shared Vision* had the next to lowest mean for the observer ratings of principals. The difference in the mean scores of principals and observers for both of these practices was less than one point. With standards and accountability measures being the central focus of all schools, perhaps principals and their constituents are not as willing to take risks or challenge the process for fear of negative impacts on test scores and school ratings. Some authors agree that our current accountability systems that base student success on one test narrow the

standards and negatively impacts teaching and learning (Glickman, 2000; McNeil, 2000). When the vision of the school is supposed to be about success for all students, it is difficult to *Inspire a Shared Vision* when accountability systems narrowly define that success.

The frequency rankings of the five practices for Region V elementary principals are consistent with the findings of Kouzes and Posner (2003) that indicate that *Enable Others to Act* is the practice reported being used most frequently followed by the practice *Model the Way*. The leadership practice perceived by leaders and observers to be the least frequently engaged in is *Inspire a Shared Vision* (p. 4).

When the scores of the respondents in this study were compared to the percentile rankings of over 100,000 previous respondents (Kouzes & Posner, 2003), there were some interesting findings. Over 50% of the principal self-scores fell above the 70th percentile, or the high score range, for three of the leadership practices: *Model the Way*, *Enable Others to Act*, and *Encourage the Heart*. The mean of the principal self-scores for these three practices also fell in the high score range. An extremely low percentage of principals in this study (1.96%) rated themselves in the low score range, or below the 30th percentile, for the practice *Enable Others to Act* which was the practice with the highest mean score for both principals and observers.

The observer scores in this study were more evenly distributed among the percentile groups for most of the leadership practices. Approximately 80% of the scores principals received from their observers fell in the moderate to high score range for all five leadership practices. It is interesting to note that, when compared to the percentile rankings developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003), the observer score

means fell in the moderate range at about the 50th percentile for all five leadership practices.

The researcher-developed questionnaire included with the LPI-Self instrument (Appendix D) asked each elementary principal for a general performance self-rating of above average, average, or below average. The questionnaire included with the LPI-Observer instrument (Appendix E) asked respondents to rate their principal's performance using the same scale. Of the 155 observers, 69.0% rated their principal as above average, 26.5% rated them as average, and 4.5% gave their principal a below average rating. Of the 51 participating principals, 72.5% rated themselves as above average, 27.5% rated themselves as average, and none of the principals self-rated as below average.

The review of the literature establishes that successful leaders often share specific traits, including; the ability to envision the future and create a shared vision (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Lezotte & McKee, 2006; Sergiovanni, 1996; Wilmore, 2002), self-confidence and the willingness to take risks (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Hoy & Miskel, 2001), honesty and trustworthiness (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Ferrandino, 2001; Kouzes & Posner, 2002b; Wilmore, 2002), a genuine sense of caring (Covey, 1991), a collaborative spirit (Blase, 1987; DuFour, 2004), and being a lifelong learner (Covey, 1991; Hoy & Miskel, 2001). These authors support the research put forth by Kouzes and Posner (2002) in the identification of the five leadership practices and the development of the Leadership Practices Inventory (2003). This research also revealed that the Region V elementary principals embrace the leadership practices identified by Kouzes and Posner at least moderately and in some cases at a higher

level (70th percentile or above). The observers of these principals also agree that these principals at least moderately engage in the five leadership practices.

3. Do selected demographic variables impact responses of principals and selected SBDM committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in elementary schools in Region V ESC, Texas?

The researcher-developed questionnaire was used to gather demographic information about each respondent. The selected demographic variables obtained from this questionnaire were gender, ethnicity, age group, and years of experience in public education. The LPI scores of the respondents were also used to analyze this research question.

Using the SPSS statistical software, the total LPI scores were first analyzed to obtain the mean, standard error, and pairwise comparisons of the scores by respondent gender. Male and female principals and observers were combined in one test for mean, standard error, and pairwise comparisons. Male respondents had a mean of 250.703 and a standard error of 11.697. Females had a mean of 246.165 and a standard error of 6.099. The mean difference of 4.538 between the two groups was at the .731 significance level indicating no statistically significant difference in the way males and females responded on the LPI instrument. This is consistent with the findings of Kouzes and Posner (2003b) who posit, “Generally, the leadership practices are not significantly different for males and females on the LPI-Self” (p. 10). A 1994 study by Long (cited in Kouzes & Posner, 2003b) found that LPI scores of female elementary principals were higher than the scores of their male

counterparts, though gender made no difference in the outcome variables. Perhaps the lower mean score of females in this study compared to the mean score of the males can be attributed to the fact that 62.7% of principals and 97.4% of observers participating in this study were female. A more even distribution of participants could possibly yield results more consistent with Long's findings.

Next, the LPI scores of all observers and leaders were analyzed by respondent ethnicity. The mean score for white respondents was 243.813 with a standard error of 6.127. The mean score for African American respondents was 259.972 with a standard error of 11.043 and Hispanic respondents had a mean score of 224.778 with a standard error of 23.010. The greatest mean difference occurred between the scores of African American and Hispanic respondents. The significance levels of the comparisons between scores of each ethnicity group, however, indicate no statistical significance in the differences of the means.

The next demographic variable examined was age. The SPSS statistical software package was used to analyze the LPI scores of all respondents by age group. The youngest group (20 – 30 years) had a mean score of 220.233 and a standard error of 23.336. Those 31 – 40 years of age had a mean score of 244.855 with a standard error of 11.668. The 41 – 50 age group had a mean score of 249.368 with a standard error of 10.254. Respondents age 51 years or more had a mean score of 251.887 with a standard error of 8.539. The oldest group (over age 50) had the highest mean score while the youngest group (20 – 30 years) had the lowest mean score.

In examining the pairwise comparisons for the four age groups, the largest difference in mean LPI scores was found between respondents 51 years of age or

older and those 20 – 30 years of age. The mean difference between these two groups was 31.654; however, the significance level of .204 indicated that the difference is not statistically significant. The least mean difference occurred between the mean score of 41–50 year old respondents and the mean score of those 51 years of age or older. The mean difference for these two groups was 2.519 with a significance level of .850, revealing no statistical significance in the mean difference.

Finally, the total LPI scores for all respondents were analyzed with the SPSS statistical software package to obtain the mean, standard error, and pairwise comparisons for five experience groups. Respondents with 0 – 10 years of experience showed a mean score of 244.540 with a standard error of 12.461. The group with 11 – 20 years of experience had a mean of 238.679 with a standard error of 9.065. Those with 21 – 30 years had a mean score of 258.258 and a standard error of 11.513. Respondents with 31 – 40 years of experience had a mean score of 257.267 with a standard error of 15.016. The most experienced group with 41 or more years in the field of education had a mean score of 252.000 with a standard error of 20.626.

Pairwise comparisons showed the greatest mean difference (19.579) to be between the group with 11 – 20 years of experience and those with 21 - 30 years of experience. The significance level of .183 for this mean difference indicates no statistical significance at the .05 level. The least mean difference was found between scores of those with 21 – 30 years of experience and those with 31 – 40 years of experience. This mean difference of .991 yielded a significance level of .958 indicating no statistical significance in the mean difference.

It is of utmost important that today's elementary schools have strong leadership in order to keep up with the demands of higher standards and increased accountability. The literature indicates that schools are struggling to keep up with increasing academic standards and increasing diversity among the student population. Because the elementary years are where students gain the foundation of knowledge necessary for success in the middle and high school years, student learning for all must be the primary focus of the goals and actions of the elementary principal as well as the entire school community.

The literature reviewed for this study along with the findings of this research is the basis for the following recommendations:

1. Superintendents and school districts must carefully screen and actively recruit quality leaders who can handle the many facets of the elementary principalship and provide outstanding instructional leadership in order to ensure student success.
2. Elementary principals must frequently exhibit the behaviors in all five of the leadership practices measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory in order to successfully implement change required meet increasing standards and accountability measures and to ensure students learn necessary skills to be successful throughout their education careers and beyond.
3. Elementary principals should evaluate their own level of the leadership practices and behaviors identified by Kouzes and Posner (2002b) and engage in reflective practice in order to "gain new or deeper understandings that lead to actions that improve learning for students" (York-Barr, Sommers, Ghere &

Montie, 2001, p. 6). Principals should then seek ways to grow personally and professionally.

4. School districts must ensure that principals are provided with ongoing staff development and growth opportunities focusing on leadership practices and instructional leadership components, such as curriculum alignment and progress monitoring, in light of the demands of the Texas accountability system and federal requirements under No Child Left Behind legislation.
5. School districts must identify and grow prospective principals through aspiring administrator programs that focus on the practices of exemplary leadership identified by Kouzes and Posner (2002b) in order to ensure that quality leaders will be ready to fill available principalships within the district.
6. School districts should work closely with universities to ensure that training provided through administrator prep programs is aligned with the real-life expectations and requirements of the elementary principalship.
7. School district leaders must recognize the accomplishments of their principals in order to encourage principals to continue striving for excellence and to possibly encourage others to enter the principalship.

Implications for Further Study

Three companion studies were conducted in Region V concurrent to this study. The three studies asked the same research questions of different populations. Larry Sheppard surveyed middle school principals and their respective site-based committee members, Christopher Soileau surveyed high school principals and their

respective site-based committee members, and Fred Brent surveyed superintendents and their district level committee members. All of these studies obtained similar findings regarding perceived leadership practices and student achievement.

The literature reviewed for this study along with the findings of the research was used to formulate the following implications for further study:

1. Using this study as a baseline, this researcher recommends a study of all Texas elementary schools using the Leadership Practices Inventory to determine the effects of perceived leadership practices on student achievement. This study should include other variables that may impact student achievement, such as student demographics of gender, ethnicity, and socioeconomic factors, funding sources and per student budget allocations, teacher turnover rates, and principal tenure.
2. A study involving the administration of the Leadership Practices Self and Observer Inventories to Texas elementary principals and their observers would provide a statewide view of principal leadership practices in Texas. Including a 360-degree feedback component would not only allow principals the opportunity to grow professionally, but could provide direction for leadership development programs.
3. A longitudinal, qualitative study on the impact of principal leadership on student academic achievement could be very valuable, especially since such an impact is often indirect in nature. Thick description of leadership practices over time and their effect on student achievement could more readily establish a linear or nonlinear relationship between these two variables.

4. Finally, this researcher recommends that a study be conducted to determine what common variables exist in high performing Texas elementary schools that could possibly have an impact on student achievement, including but not limited to, leadership practices of the principal.

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APPENDIX A
LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY - SELF

Leadership Practices Inventory - Self

To what extent do you typically engage in the following behaviors? Choose the response number that best applies to each statement and record it in the box to the right of the statement.

(1) almost never, (2) rarely, (3) seldom, (4) once in a while, (5) occasionally, (6) sometimes, (7) fairly often, (8) usually, (9) very frequently, and (10) almost always.

Score:

1. I set a personal example of what I expect of others.	
2. I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.	
3. I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.	
4. I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with.	
5. I praise people for a job well done.	
6. I spend time and energy making certain that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards that we have agreed on.	
7. I describe a compelling image of what our future could look like.	
8. I challenge people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.	
9. I actively listen to diverse points of view.	
10. I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.	
11. I follow through on promises and commitments I make.	
12. I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.	
13. I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.	
14. I treat others with dignity and respect.	
15. I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of projects.	
16. I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance.	
17. I show others how their long term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.	
18. I ask "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected.	
19. I support the decisions that people make on their own.	
20. I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.	
21. I build consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.	
22. I paint the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.	
23. I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.	
24. I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.	
25. I find ways to celebrate accomplishments.	
26. I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.	
27. I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.	
28. I experiment and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure.	
29. I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.	
30. I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.	

APPENDIX B

LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY - OBSERVER

Leadership Practices Inventory - Observer

I (the observer) am this leader's (check one):

____ Manager ____ Direct Report ____ Co-worker ____ Other

To what extent does this leader typically engage in the following behaviors? Choose the response number that best applies to each statement and record it in the box to the right of the statement.

(1) almost never, (2) rarely, (3) seldom, (4) once in a while, (5) occasionally, (6) sometimes, (7) fairly often, (8) usually, (9) very frequently, and (10) almost always.

He or She:

Score:

1. Sets a personal example of what he/she expects of others.	
2. Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.	
3. Seeks out challenging opportunities that test his/her own skills and abilities.	
4. Develops cooperative relationships among the people he/she works with.	
5. Praises people for a job well done.	
6. Spends time and energy making certain that the people he/she works with adhere to the principles and standards that we have agreed on.	
7. Describes a compelling image of what our future could look like.	
8. Challenges people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.	
9. Actively listens to diverse points of view.	
10. Makes it a point to let people know about his/her confidence in their abilities.	
11. Follows through on promises and commitments he/she makes.	
12. Appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future.	
13. Searches outside the formal boundaries of his/her organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.	
14. Treats others with dignity and respect.	
15. Makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of projects.	
16. Asks for feedback on how his/her actions affect other people's performance.	
17. Shows others how their long term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.	
18. Asks "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected.	
19. Supports the decisions that people make on their own.	
20. Publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values.	
21. Builds consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.	
22. Paints the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.	
23. Makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.	
24. Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.	
25. Finds ways to celebrate accomplishments.	
26. Is clear about his/her philosophy of leadership.	
27. Speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.	
28. Experiments and takes risks, even when there is a chance of failure.	
29. Ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.	
30. Gives the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.	

APPENDIX C

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SURVEY - PRINCIPAL

Participant Information

Please place a check in the appropriate space provided.

1. Gender ☐ M ☐ F
2. Ethnicity ☐ African American ☐ Hispanic
☐ Asian ☐ White ☐ Other
3. Primary Role in Public Education ☐ Administrator ☐ Teacher ☐ Clerical
☐ Paraprofessional ☐ Parent
☐ Business Leader
4. Age ☐ 20-30 ☐ 31-40 ☐ 41-50 ☐ 50+
5. Public Education Experience ☐ 0-10 ☐ 11-20 ☐ 21-30
☐ 31-40 ☐ 41+

Please give yourself an overall rating to indicate your performance as a leader.

☐ Above Average ☐ Average ☐ Below Average

APPENDIX D**PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SURVEY - OBSERVER**

Participant Information

Please place a check in the appropriate space provided.

1. Gender ☐ M ☐ F
2. Ethnicity ☐ African American ☐ Hispanic
☐ Asian ☐ White ☐ Other
3. Primary Role in Public Education ☐ Administrator ☐ Teacher ☐ Clerical
☐ Paraprofessional ☐ Parent
☐ Business Leader
4. Age ☐ 20-30 ☐ 31-40 ☐ 41-50 ☐ 50+
5. Public Education Experience ☐ 0-10 ☐ 11-20 ☐ 21-30
☐ 31-40 ☐ 41+

Please give your principal an overall rating to indicate his/her performance as a leader.

☐ Above Average ☐ Average ☐ Below Average

APPENDIX E

PERMISSION LETTER FROM KOUZES AND POSNER

KOUZES POSNER INTERNATIONAL

15419 Banyan Lane
Monte Sereno, California 95030
FAX: (408) 354-9170

February 12, 2005

Ms. Stacey Arnold
3166 Gardendale
Port Neches, Texas 77651

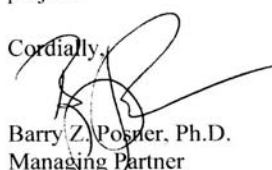
Dear Stacey:

Thank you for your request to use the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) in your dissertation. We are willing to allow you to reproduce the instrument as outlined in your request, at no charge, with the following understandings:

- (1) That the LPI is used only for research purposes and is not sold or used in conjunction with any compensated management development activities;
- (2) That copyright of the LPI, or any derivation of the instrument, is retained by Kouzes Posner International, and that the following copyright statement is included on all copies of the instrument: "Copyright © 2003 James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. All rights reserved. Used with permission.";
- (3) That one (1) **bound** copy of your dissertation and one (1) copy of **all** papers, reports, articles, and the like which make use of the LPI data be sent **promptly** to our attention; and,
- (4) That you agree to allow us to include an abstract of your study and any other published papers utilizing the LPI on our various websites.

If the terms outlined above are acceptable, would you indicate so by signing one (1) copy of this letter and returning it to us. Best wishes for every success with your research project.

Cordially,


Barry Z. Posner, Ph.D.
Managing Partner

I understand and agree to abide by these conditions:

(Signed) Stacey Arnold Date: 2-18-05

APPENDIX F

RECRUITMENT LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

STACEY ARNOLD
3166 Gardendale
Port Neches, TX 77651
(409) 724-0877

[Date]

Dear Principal:

I am a doctoral student at Texas A&M University under the supervision of Dr. John Hoyle in Educational Administration. I am also an elementary principal in the Port Neches-Groves ISD. I am presently conducting a research project in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Education degree and I am requesting your assistance with my project.

Your packet includes an Information Sheet describing the research project, a survey to be completed by you, and another packet addressed to the chairman of your campus site-based decision making committee. Please forward the addressed packet to the committee chairman or a designee if you are also the committee chairman.

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this very important study. I greatly appreciate your help.

Sincerely,

Stacey Arnold
Graduate Student
Department of Educational Administration
and Human Resource Development
Texas A&M University

Enclosure

APPENDIX G
RECRUITMENT LETTER TO SITE-BASED DECISION-MAKING
COMMITTEE CHAIRMAN

STACEY ARNOLD
3166 Gardendale
Port Neches, TX 77651
(409) 724-0877

[Date]

Dear Campus Site-Based Decision Making Committee Chairman:

I am a doctoral student at Texas A&M University under the supervision of Dr. John Hoyle in Educational Administration. I am also an elementary principal in the Port Neches-Groves ISD. I am presently conducting a research project in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Education degree and I am requesting your assistance with my project.

Your packet includes five copies of an Information Sheet describing the research project with surveys attached. Please complete one survey and distribute surveys to four additional members of your campus site-based decision making committee

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this very important study. I greatly appreciate your help.

Sincerely,

Stacey Arnold
Graduate Student
Department of Educational Administration
and Human Resource Development
Texas A&M University

Enclosure

APPENDIX H
INFORMATION SHEET

Information Sheet

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT PERFORMANCE AND LEADERSHIP PRACTICES AS PERCEIVED BY PRINCIPALS AND SELECTED SITE-BASED DECISION MAKING (SBDM) COMMITTEE MEMBERS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN REGION V EDUCATION SERVICE CENTER (ESC), TEXAS.

- You have been asked to participate in a research study regarding the relationship between student performance and the perceived leadership practices of elementary principals in Region V ESC because you are either an elementary principal or you are a member of an elementary campus site-based decision making committee in Region V.
- Your contact information was obtained through the Region V Education Service Center Directory of Schools.
- A total of 73 principals and 365 campus site-based decision making committee members have been asked to participate in this study.
- The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by principals and site-based decision making committee members in Region V elementary schools.
- This study is the topic of a record of study.
- If you agree to be in this study you will be asked to complete a survey that will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.
- The risks associated with this study are no more than a minimal risk and the probability that something will go wrong is unlikely to occur.
- There are no specific benefits to you and you will receive no monetary compensation for your participation.
- This study is confidential and your responses will be kept private. A coding system is being used to track responses and once the data is collected, the identification link between questionnaire and respondent will be destroyed. No identifiers linking you to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published.
- Research records will be stored securely and only the researcher, Stacey Arnold, a Texas A&M University doctoral student, will have access to the records.
- If you decide to participate, you are free to refuse to answer any of the survey questions that may make you uncomfortable and you may withdraw from the study at any time.
- You can contact Stacey Arnold, researcher, at 409-724-0877 (sarnold@esc5.net) or Dr. John Hoyle, Doctoral Committee Chair, at 979-845-2748 with any questions about this study.

This research study has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board- Human Subjects in Research, Texas A&M University. For research related problems or questions regarding subjects' rights, you can contact the Institutional Review Board through Ms. Angelia Raines, Director of Research Compliance, Office of the Vice President for Research at (979) 458-4067 (araines@vprmail.tamu.edu).

By returning the attached survey instrument to Stacey Arnold in the envelope provided **by May 20, 2005**, you hereby agree to voluntarily participate in this study.

VITA

Name: Stacy Rae Arnold

Address: 3166 Gardendale Dr., Port Neches, TX 77651

Email Address: sarnold@pngisd.org

Education: Ed.D., Educational Administration, Texas A&M University,
College Station, Texas, 2007

M.Ed., Elementary Education, Mathematics Specialization,
Lamar University, Beaumont, Texas, 1985

B.S., Elementary Education, Mathematics Specialization,
Lamar University, Beaumont, Texas, 1983

Professional Experience: 1996 – present Principal, Ridgewood Elementary School
Port Neches-Groves ISD, Port Neches, Texas

1984 – 1996 Teacher, First and Third Grade, Woodcrest
Elementary School
Port Neches-Groves ISD, Port Neches, Texas

1984 Mathematics Teacher, Groves Middle School
Port Neches-Groves ISD, Port Neches, Texas

The typist for this record of study was Mr. Bill A. Ashworth, Jr.